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A GENERAL VIEW OF GERMAN PEDAGOGY FOR THE BENEFIT OF FOREIGNERS. I

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Germany, and in particular Prussia, is in the fortunate position that its educational life arouses much interest among foreigners, and to a certain extent also much faith. People have let themselves be told that the best teachers in the world are to be found here. The statement is heard that the Germans are to a man born pedagogues. Here the best organized schools are looked for with confidence, and the purest and most certain methods expected. Year by year numerous foreigners come to Germany to study our schools and educational arrangements as well as our pedagogic theories and convictions, and they come not only from the great neighboring countries or from the rest of Europe, not even merely from the United States, that country far less remote in point of culture than in geographical position, but from almost every corner of the civilized world. This is, of course, partly due to the general increase in the taste for, or habit of, traveling and in the facilities for it; and they come also, it is true, to examine our industrial, administrative, and technical institutions, just as they visit our universities and scientific colleges, or study our military life.

But to the province of education access is still easier, and the dread of inconvenient competition can hardly come obstructively into play here. It is true, the idea of the value of educational institutions for the outward, economic, and political success of

nations is close at hand, and in England the opinion has repeatedly been expressed of late that Germany owes her recent successes in her foreign policy to her good schools, and that for this reason, these should be studied and imitated as much as possible. But for the most part the interest is probably founded upon a freer, not to say a more idealistic basis.

The right form of human education is a perpetual, unfathomable problem, with which the whole world is confronted, and at which the nations must work with, not against, one another. Every country owes it to itself and to its future to apply the greatest earnestness to it, and in no case will it be taken amiss if a nation strives, by putting forth its utmost efforts, to advance to or maintain its position in the front rank in this domain; nor is it on this account looked upon with such suspicion as is excited by military armaments, let us say, or plans of commercial expansion. Moreover, the interest in education is everywhere unmistakably on the increase; and it is on the increase after having been particularly lively in the latter part of the eighteenth century, and on into the first part of the nineteenth. This increase is indeed connected now, more closely than before, with the idea of the greatest national efficiency, and not so much with that of individual perfection. It is also connected with the still more generally felt pressure of the difficulty of giving young people a real insight into the complicated culture of the present day. In a word, men are speculating, and seeking, and looking about them, and would fain somewhere find a talisman, or at least a reliably working organization and method, that might be transferred and adopted.

So definite an expectation must perhaps always meet with disappointment—disappointment, inasmuch as the perfect is not in reality to be found, while to the relatively best there clings always “the defects of its qualities;” or again, disappointment, inasmuch as transference to a different nationality and civilization is not really possible. To return to our particular case, unmingled satisfaction is certainly rarely the final impression carried away by foreigners who visit Germany in connection with her educational institutions and achievements; or, if it be so, then

the picture they have obtained is not perhaps the objectively correct one, inasmuch as the field of observation was too limited. For how many things are indispensable to the complete knowledge of the reality! Two prejudices in particular stand in the way, both indeed easy to understand, yet both very apt to lead to error.

It is a pure assumption to suppose that the capital must display in typical perfection the characteristics of the country as a whole. In this matter one almost always argues from the relation of France to its capital, although even there, one may easily be led astray by identifying what is Parisian with what is French. But as surely as London is not England, St. Petersburg not Russia, New York not North America, equally, and perhaps even more, certain is it that Berlin is not Germany, nor even Prussia. The variety of provinces and races is far too great for that to be possible, while each one has no small degree of freedom of development and organization. And precisely for educational purposes, a great city, and more especially one that has grown up with a leap and is still feverishly developing, offers particularly unfavorable conditions. Gigantic schools with every class too full; great distances involving waste of time for pupils and teachers; estrangement of young people from the life of nature; impairment of a healthy family life by the hurry and tension of business or profession; a one-sided intellectual precocity; the difficulty of a more intimate intercourse between pupils and teachers due to large numbers; the inevitable tendency to make educational measures mechanical—all these contribute a series of obviously unfavorable conditions and ought to prevent one from seeking here the typical picture. Yet for all that, may not the brightest teachers be expected to congregate in the capital, perhaps to be drawn thither by a process of sifting from every part of the country? This again would apply very well to the French capital, toward which every able man in the land strives as the only honorable field of activity for his powers. But it does not by any means apply to Germany, which is indeed not even a unified state, and which possesses not only a special center for culture in Saxony or Bavaria, but also a number of other places,

deserving of some renown, and proud of their own individuality. And, certain as it is that it would be mistaken and unfair not to recognize, in the educational domain as well as in others, a high general level of efficiency, intelligence, industry, and professional zeal in the capital of the empire together with its suburbs, yet true pedagogic activity and striving can in more than one respect develop more easily outside it. In addition to the disadvantages mentioned above, one need only think of the absence or remoteness of playgrounds, and of the lack of time for voluntary educational activity in addition to school lessons, to say nothing of the confined courtyards of most of the newer schools, in which the young people can only move decorously to and fro a little, instead of romping as is their just due.

Little then can a visit to the capital or to a part of its schools (for in reality it must always be only a small part that is visited by a single foreigner) suffice for the formation of correct judgment about German school education. The result must in every way remain equally untrustworthy where there is limitation to any one portion of the field.

A second widespread prejudice exists to the effect that in Germany, more especially in Prussia, education is so strictly regulated by a central authority that one cannot expect to find any considerable dissimilarity between the particular schools, provinces, or persons. This conception is due to the fact that in Prussia the state government did actually obtain control over education, and subjected it to fixed, universally valid standards, at a time when in other countries, and more especially in England, such an official control was not even thought of, while in others again uniformity was obtained by mere tradition and custom. This tradition was indeed based upon a conscious systematic control from an earlier period, namely, that exercised by the church, or more particularly by the Order of the Jesuits. But their organizing activity had in past centuries worked more silently through a similarity, a uniformity of spirit, and indeed with much less variety of inner organization, but not by means of explicit announcement and legal enforcement. And accordingly these latter countries have been much less progressive than Prus-

sia, where men were unceasingly pondering, experimenting, and correcting. For even in England had not the rule of tradition been stricter than could have been accomplished by control from any central office whatsoever? Custom binds more firmly than command or laws; sometimes its effects will be even more paralyzing.

Now it must be admitted that in Prussia from the first interference of government up to the present time there has been no lack of regulation; curricula, plans of organization for different kinds of schools, examining regulations, and the arrangement of many matters of detail—these have followed one another until this day. The other German states followed suit either at once or little by little, with similar regulations, or, as in the case of those of South Germany, undertook a no less precise control on their own account, yet always in the belief that the best results obtained in particular cases should give results of value to the community, and that the best-thought-out system should be made into a universal standard. But it would nevertheless be an error to suppose that this official standardizing applied to everything. Some characters will, it is true, always be disposed to regard and interpret the standards set up by the authorities as direct commands. These are, of course, characters of a certain mediocrity, and there has been no lack of headmasters or inspectors of this kind. Nevertheless, the tendency of the government, at any rate in the larger state of Prussia, has never been to suppress all freedom of movement. One need only look into the work of Wiese-Kübler upon the rules and regulations for secondary schools, to see how many instructions of their own the particular provinces have issued, or how they possess, in their "Headmasters' Meetings" (*Direktoren-Versammlungen*) a kind of school parliament of their own. It should further be observed how different the methods of introduction of the various teachers may be, and finally, how different the general tone of the schools is, according to the personality of the headmaster and of the most influential members of the staff. To the question, for instance, whether the Prussian *Gymnasias* are strict or lenient in their demands for discipline and diligence, or

whether the relations between teachers and pupils are harsh or friendly, the answer would, after all, have to depend upon the school and the character of its personal management. Thus it is not a matter in which it is easy to base general conclusions upon particular impressions. To arrive at tenable opinions through one's own observation, it would be necessary not only to extend them over a very considerable time—a much longer time than most visitors from abroad have at their disposal—but also to get to know and to compare widely separated parts of the country. But the most important point is that after a century in which the tendency toward uniformity has, after all, predominated, it is at present impossible not to recognize the presence, in just the most influential quarter, namely on the part of the highest educational authorities in Prussia, of a readiness to grant a considerable freedom of organization and of self-modification to the separate schools. Moreover, instead of the former limited numbers of different kinds of secondary schools (*Gymnasium* and *Realschule*), a whole series of forms have been officially recognized and favored.

Almost all visitors to a foreign country are wont to sum up their impressions in praise or blame, at least the impressions which they have received in particular departments. The observer's character, range of view, and other personal factors, affect the result. Many are somewhat led astray by the natural attraction of the new and strange; in many the strange inspires rather a sense of uneasiness and distrust. On the other hand, what one has always heard and learned has no small influence, and this influence is a twofold one. Many do not see what is foreign through their own eyes at all, but through the colored spectacles which they bring with them.

Others perceive first and foremost the points in which the new differs from the picture which they have accepted of it, fall from one fit of astonishment into another, and exaggerate to themselves and others the features which strike them. If you read a book or newspaper article written by a foreigner about your own country, you almost always find that the praise or blame is wrongly distributed and meted out. Further, national

states of opinion play a particularly important part. It has long been the custom of the French not to trouble seriously about foreign culture, and to be very prone to see a sort of barbarism beyond their own frontiers—at any rate in the direction of the East. But in the latter decades their opinion has veered round, and we now have unduly favorable judgments oftener than disparaging ones from that quarter.

People who think that something badly needs reform in their own country are very fond of pointing to a foreign one as a model. Many of our educational arrangements have in recent times met with much praise of this kind from England also, and as has already been mentioned, it is especially to our schools that people are inclined to attribute the reason of the nation's outward progress. The more penetrating English observers distinguish very sharply between what is good in our education and those details in which it is altogether surpassed by the English: and they are quite right in so distinguishing, even if they perhaps lay on both the lights and shades somewhat too heavily. The numerous Russians who come here, before all things filled with the natural desire to remedy the internal defects of their own country by means of definite new regulations, for the most part imagine the transference of foreign structures to their own soil to be too easy and too practicable. They firmly believe, too, that they will find in our country something that is supposed to be characteristic of us, although it is not quite so truly so, namely, a hard and fast regulation, penetrating into every matter of detail, definitely prescribed and universally followed methods of instruction, and so on. All this they would like to see and inquire into, mostly in quite a short time, that they may carry it home with them, together with German theoretical pedagogics in a single handy volume. This often undeniably touching zeal for the raising of their nation does not, it must be confessed, give much hope of success. But it is the American visitors to our country who are wont to obtain the fullest information: and it is they too who most often take the broadest pedagogic field of view, who are not held in check by a specifically national, centuries-old tradition in this particular, and who show themselves

governed rather by calm, clear will than by restless feeling. Perhaps they are inclined to expect too much from the establishment of an elaborate theory, of a truly model organization. This, young men and young nations seem to have in common, and one must not cut off such a hope, even if it is bound to lead to disappointments.

It is indeed just those who approach German schools and education with too favorable expectations who cannot escape disappointments. There are indubitably points at which the stagnation has been greater than the advance of time would seem to allow. Some factors have not come into force there which are working well in certain other countries. Much is after all more rigidly mechanical there than the specialists concerned are themselves aware; more rigidly mechanical than is consistent with genuine life. Some particular new impulses have not yet found a sufficiently friendly reception there. It is not unusual to encounter there the belief in what has long been customary as though it were the same as the well tried. All these impressions may be received; no reasonable man in Germany will be surprised at, or protest against, it. On the contrary it cannot but be painful, if the world shows that it expects too much of us. More certain than the well-known dictum of the philosopher, that all that is real is reasonable, would be this other, that all that is real among men and which has been realized by men, in some degree falls short of the reasonable, and, still more certainly, of the perfect. In truth, even that which is admittedly good may have a very dark side.

I should like to try and give a picture of German education as it appears to me, and as I think that it should be seen by the foreigner. Merely as an introduction to this, what has been said already would be too extensive; fortunately, in the course of it, some of the features of the picture that is to be drawn have been sketched in anticipation.

[To be continued]

RECENT BOOKS IN AMERICAN HISTORY

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To look after the needs of the teachers is quite as legitimate a purpose in building up a high-school library as to provide for the needs of the pupils, and so it becomes an essential part of the library equipment to have on hand, available for the teacher's use, as broad a collection as possible of the source material of the branch of history to be taught. Such collections should be made in every high-school library. As most of the cities have growing public libraries, some of the money now wasted on worthless and ephemeral fiction and worse than worthless juveniles, might profitably be turned to books of this kind, which would be of permanent value.

This happens to be a very good time to speak of gathering books of this character, as just at present there is great activity in reprinting, or in hunting out and printing for the first time, material that has not hitherto been easily accessible to students. One important series of this kind is "Original Narratives of Early American History," published by Chas. Scribner's Sons. The series is under the general editorship of Professor J. Franklin Jameson, and is published under the auspices of the American Historical Association, thus insuring careful selection and editing. It is impossible here to speak in any detail of these volumes. The first one deals with the Northmen, Columbus, and Cabot, and contains material of the very highest value. Its one great defect from our present point of view is its lack of completeness. A number of things are omitted that ought to have been included. Vol. III of the series has preceded Vol. II. It is entitled *Early English and French Voyagers, Chiefly from Hakluyt*, and contains the narratives of Cartier, Hore, Hawkins, Drake, Gilbert, Barlowe, Lane, White, Brereton, Priny, Waymouth, and a "Voyage to Sagadahoc." Purchas and Hakluyt were republished a few years ago, but in limited edi-

tions at very high prices. This volume at a reasonable price is therefore welcome, but again it is unfortunate that more is not included. For valuable as these volumes are, their lack of completeness makes a serious drawback in their use by students.

Another valuable series which has now reached its twenty-ninth volume is entitled "Early Western Travels," and is published by Arthur H. Clark and Co., of Cleveland. All the volumes of this series have so far been carefully edited, but not all are of equal value for our purposes. Again we cannot deal in detail with even the volumes of recent publication, but one, Vol. XXV in the series, *The Present State of European Settlements on the Mississippi*, by Captain Wm. Pitman (1763-70) gives us information about the Mississippi posts and settlements from New Orleans to St. Louis at a period when information about them is very hard to find, and is the most valuable of the five or six volumes published in the series this year. Other recent volumes are: *Personal Narrative of Travels in Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky, and of a Residence in the Illinois Country*, by Elias Pym Fordham (1812-18), Audubon's *Western Journal* (1849-50), an account of a trip from Brazos, Texas, to southern California, by the son of the great naturalist, and *Travels in the Great Western Prairies, the Anahuac and Rocky Mountains and in the Oregon Territory*, by Thomas J. Farnham, a narrative rich in the early history of Oregon.

But the most important of the original documents to which I wish to call attention are two publications by Congress; and first the *Journal of the Continental Congress*. The *Journal* is to be published in eleven volumes. The fourth is now announced. The editorial work is satisfactorily done by Worthington C. Ford, and the *Journal* is supplemented by reports and other documents selected from the papers of the Continental Congress now in the Congressional Library. This is thus the most complete and valuable edition of the *Journal* ever issued. It can be purchased for \$1 a volume, and I cannot emphasize too strongly the statement that this edition should find its way into every high-school library.

The second congressional publication is a work of scarcely less importance and of even greater interest. In 1815 Congress purchased from Thomas Jefferson a collection of documents for which it paid him nearly \$24,000. In 1826, when Jefferson's library was sold at auction, another collection was purchased for the Congressional Library. Among the papers thus obtained were copies of the *Court Books and Records of the Virginia Company*, covering the period from 1619 to 1623. Ever since that these valuable records and papers have been in the Congressional Library and until now no copy of them has ever been published, although Congress had many times been urged to make proper provision for their publication. But now, in two magnificent volumes under the title of *Records of the Virginia Company of London: The Court Book*, Vols. I and II, are published and there seems to be some intimation that the other valuable papers of the Virginia Company will also soon be put in print, and constitute a third volume. The preface to this edition is written by Professor Herbert L. Osgood, of Columbia University, and the edition is ably edited by Miss Susan M. Kingsbury, of Simmons College. Says Miss Kingsbury:

The value of this series of papers, is threefold—it discloses the organization and activity of the company; it aids in an understanding of the various problems, policies, and conditions of the state under the early Stuarts; and it is of great importance in a study of the entire movement of the earlier and of the later century for exploration, for trade, and especially for colonization.

Between the years 1618 and 1624 Virginia changed from a "colony for exploitation to a colony for settlement." Its land system was developed; its various classes of population were established or begun; and thus the foundations were laid for the future character of the colony. The conditions during this period need more careful study than they have yet received, or, so long as their records and papers remained unpublished, than was really possible for most students. The bringing of these important papers and records within easy reach of all is therefore a matter for greatest congratulation.

Two abstracts of the *Records of the Virginia Company* have

hitherto been published, one by Neil, which was not very accurate, and a briefer one in the volumes of the Virginia Historical Society, both inadequate for any careful study. The two volumes now published are sold for \$4, and again I have no hesitancy in saying every high-school library should obtain them.

Another book, also containing much of value to the teacher, is *Documentary History of Reconstruction*, by Walter L. Fleming; published by the Arthur H. Clark Company, Cleveland.

The purpose of this work is to make more accessible to the student and to the general reader some of the original sources relating to the Reconstruction period [is the first sentence of the Preface.] The documents presented are principally laws, state and federal, official reports and political platforms; accounts of northern men and foreigners living or traveling in the South; accounts of southerners, white and black, ex-Confederates and Unionists, Conservatives and Radicals.

There are to be two volumes of this collection of documents, but Vol. I only has come to hand. A detailed criticism is not possible here, but perhaps too much should not be expected from a work of this kind. The selections given afford many glimpses of conditions in the South during the reconstruction period; many of the selections are exceedingly interesting and instructive; but they give glimpses only. For a real study much more is necessary than is or could be given in the two volumes to which the selections are limited. While we have not here then a real History of Reconstruction, yet, if we do not mistake its real character, the work is a valuable and instructive one.

Next to these various works in original material, perhaps one or two monographs on important subjects are worthy of mention. One such work is *The Disputed Presidential Election of 1876*, by Paul Leland Haworth, published by Burrows Bros. Co., Cleveland. This is an exceedingly careful and painstaking study of a very complicated affair, is accurate, and well written. All the disputed questions are discussed, and the evidence on both sides is fairly stated. It is, in fact, the best account of this serious dispute now available. Nevertheless the work must be used with some care, as Mr. Haworth is a republican, and in his

final conclusion in the discussion of every dispute he uniformly finds the republicans in the right and the democrats wrong.

Another work, also published by the Burrows Bros. Co., is the *Purchase of Florida*, by Herbert Bruce Fuller. This essay, the author tells us, was awarded the Eggleston Prize in American History at Yale University in 1904, and from the poverty of historical writings on the subject he says that he "was impressed with the advantages which might accrue to students of American history, from an unprejudiced and accurate account of the acquisition of Florida and our early entanglements with the Spanish nation." All will agree with this view of the situation and we are therefore prepared to welcome a work devoted to the consideration of this neglected phase of our history. And so in Mr. Fuller's pages we find much material not so easily accessible elsewhere—indeed a great deal of such material, if we are in position to use it. But unfortunately the book has a serious and almost fatal defect. His treatment is not full enough; he has not given a clear account of the complicated conditions with which he deals. One must already be quite familiar with the whole history of the period to understand the significance of what he finds here, or to be able to follow clearly the progress of the narrative.

In conclusion, two general works may perhaps receive passing notice. One is the series of volumes under the head of "The American Nation" edited by Albert Bushnell Hart, and published by Harper and Brothers. The publication of this series has now been progressing for several years. It is not a continuous narrative history, but rather a series of monographs, each by a different author, each treating one phase or period of the history. Vols. VIII to XIV have appeared since the last report. It is impossible even to mention the volumes in detail, but the last one brings the history down to 1829. Such a series has some advantages over a work by a single author, and also serious disadvantages. The chief ones for our purposes are that the volumes are very uneven, and the point of view of the successive authors is constantly changing. For teachers the first of these defects is the important one, for high-school pupils

the second one. Some of the volumes add materially to our insight into the period treated; others add little or nothing to what had already been written. Nevertheless, taken as a whole, the work is important enough to merit our serious consideration.

The final work to which a word may be given is the completion of Rhodes's *History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850* (Macmillan), by the publication of Vols. VI and VII. In almost his concluding paragraph Mr. Rhodes himself says, "I have endeavored throughout this history of the great conflict, to which I have devoted nineteen years of my life, to maintain such standards of research and of judgment as should elicit the utmost of truth." To this modest claim of the author all familiar with the work can more than subscribe. With practically unlimited means at his command, Mr. Rhodes's research has been prodigious, and so his materials, as he says, superabundant. He has given us a readable and reliable history, accurate and impartial. His one great limitation is that he has not penetrated deeply into the great underlying forces at work in our history, and his judgments therefore are not always profound or such as will stand the test of time. But his work nevertheless is a valuable and important one, and especially well suited for the reference library in our schools. Mr. Rhodes himself gives a sort of summary of his work at the close of his last volume:

It has covered twenty-seven years of pregnant events, the compromise on slavery devised by great statesmen; its upsetting by an ambitious Northern Senator; the formation of the Republican party; the agitation of slavery; Southern arrogance and aggression; the election of Lincoln; the refusal of the South to abide by the decision of the ballot box; the Civil War; the great work of Lincoln; the abolition of slavery; the defeat of the South; Reconstruction based upon universal Negro Suffrage; the oppression of the South by the North; the final triumph of Southern intelligence and character over the ignorance and corruption that so long had thriven under Northern misconceptions.

The importance of the history and of the period which it covers can be shown in no better way than by the mere enumeration of these topics.

Since the Hayes-Tilden campaign in 1876,

South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana have always given their electoral votes to the democratic candidates for the presidency. With their resumption of home rule, the first step in the process by which intelligence and property gained control of affairs in all of the Southern States that joined the Confederacy, my history fitly ends.

It should be remembered that a report of this kind cannot be complete or exhaustive. It is not intended, in the ordinary sense of the word, to be a review of books, but rather to call attention to some at least of the important books of the year along the lines of American history. Moreover its point of view is not that of the reviewer, but always that of the importance of these books in connection with the work of the secondary schools.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND

THIRD AND CONCLUDING ARTICLE

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the Training of Teachers

SCIENCE AND ART

By a minute issued in August, 1897, the administration of science and art grants, in so far as Scotland was concerned, was transferred from the Department of Science and Art, South Kensington, to the Scotch Education Department. These grants were given for instruction in schools and classes of science and art; for drawing and manual instruction in elementary day schools; for drawing in evening continuation schools, and for science and art instruction in training colleges. They had been a source of income to many advanced departments and higher-class schools, either in the form of grants for instruction in particular subjects according to the syllabuses of the science and art directory, or in the form of grants to schools of science, which were, for the most part, paid on a general curriculum embracing a definite amount of instruction in specified branches of science and art. At the date of the transference there were in Scotland eleven schools of science of which eight were higher-class schools and three were secondary departments of schools aided under the code, with an enrolment of 1,194 students in the elementary course and 185 in the advanced. Furthermore, there were 254 separate institutions, including 41 higher-class schools, which, either in day or evening classes, had a total enrolment of 21,312 in science and 14,774 in art. As the total grant distributed in aid of science and art in Scotland for the year 1897 amounted to close upon £60,000 it will be seen that the duty of administering this sum was no light one.

This transference was another link in the co-ordination of

the various resources of higher education, and a further step in the direction of preventing "the overlapping and confusion of functions which must necessarily be detrimental to the best interests of education." One of the first results was the reorganization of science and art instruction in higher-class schools. By a minute of August 24, 1900 (amended May 30, 1903), a system of distributing grants for the teaching of science and art, etc., in higher-class or similar schools, not in receipt of grant under code, was outlined. Managers of such schools might submit for the approval of the Scotch Education Department a scheme of instruction under one or more of four heads: (a) physical and natural science; (b) drawing (including modeling); (c) practical geometry and educational handwork; (d) cooking, laundry work, dressmaking, or other form of practical household economy. Substantial grants, calculated on the number of hours of instruction given, were offered. Various conditions, however, had to be fulfilled before the courses were recognized, such as due provision for the teaching of subjects of general education, including a satisfactory amount of instruction in mathematics and higher arithmetic, adequate accommodation and equipment, small classes for practical instruction, a reasonable number of pupils receiving instruction in subjects under head (a) and properly qualified teachers. Moreover, grants could be claimed only upon the attendance of pupils over twelve years of age whose attainments were such as to satisfy the Scotch Education Department that they were fit to receive instruction in these subjects. This scheme has gradually superseded the previous systems in operation in higher-class schools, whether as science and art classes or as schools of science, and at the present time fifty-three higher-class schools are receiving grants under this minute. An additional stimulus has been given to science-teaching by the institution in 1899 of a leaving-certificate examination in science for those pupils who have received instruction in science in approved schools, according to a curriculum extending over at least three years. The examination is chiefly oral and practical, and based upon the profession made of the work done. The interesting feature is the association of the teacher with the

examiner in assessing the value of the pupil's work. At a later stage we shall find that this principle has been extended to several other subjects of the leaving-certificate examination.

In 1902 an examination, conducted on similar lines and under practically the same conditions, was instituted for drawing.

ADVANCED DEPARTMENTS (1899)

Already in 1898 the opinion had been expressed that specifics were frequently not carried sufficiently far to give them any real educational value, and that better results might be obtained if these subjects were confined in ordinary cases to schools in which there was a specially constituted secondary department, and where a considerable proportion of scholars remained beyond the elementary stage. In the code (1898), therefore, we find as a preliminary step that the age of candidates for the merit certificate was reduced to twelve, specific subjects as part of the examination were dispensed with, and there was now demanded thorough proficiency in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and a due instruction (code, 1899) in nature knowledge, English, geography, and history. The future of this certificate was clearly outlined:

"While it is to be taken as the evidence of the satisfactory completion of an elementary-school course, it will also serve the purpose of an entrance examination, which must be taken by all pupils whom it is proposed to enter for a course of higher education."

As to the nature of this higher instruction, the preliminary to which was to be the merit certificate, full details were given in the code (1899). The time was certainly ripe for some better system of organization of higher work in state-aided schools, for more than 60,000 pupils in these schools were over thirteen years of age, and about 6,000 over fifteen. Specific subjects, the backbone of higher education in state-aided schools since 1872, were abolished, and in place of them there was instituted a *general* course of instruction in an advanced department. The instruction had to be given according to a curriculum, specially approved by the Scotch Education Department, which should make provision for adequate instruction in English, history,

geography, arithmetic, and, as a rule, drawing; and also for instruction in languages, mathematics, and science. Liberal grants (in part obtained from the science and art grant) were offered, and payment was made, not on individual subjects as previously, but on the curriculum as a whole, the average attendance being taken as a basis. Additional grants, too, were offered for instruction in experimental science, manual instruction, cookery, laundry work, dairying, dressmaking, or practical household economy, but these were paid upon the basis of the number of hours of instruction given. In all cases the accommodation for any form of practical instruction had to be sufficient and suitable, and the teachers were required to have special qualifications for the work they undertook to teach. A much higher rate of grant was offered for schools in sparsely populated districts, provided the teaching power was shown to be adequate.

It should be noted that such a course as the above was intended for pupils who, on leaving school, would in all probability follow occupations of an industrial or commercial nature; accordingly much more importance was attached to the teaching of science, drawing, and modern languages than to subjects "which, although intellectually valuable, were less likely to be of practical use to pupils who would leave school at a comparatively early age."

HIGHER-GRADE SCHOOLS (1899)

In the same code a more highly developed advanced department was instituted under the name of "higher-grade school." A well-defined course of instruction, extending over three years at least, was demanded, and the school had to be staffed to the extent of providing at least one teacher for every thirty pupils in average attendance. Various types of higher-grade schools were contemplated, either predominantly scientific or predominantly commercial, or of a form adapted for girls or special classes of pupils. As before, certain subjects had to be common to the curriculum of each type, such as English, history, geography, higher arithmetic, and drawing. Over and above these, a higher-grade science school had to provide courses in mathe-

matics, experimental science, and manual work; whereas a higher-grade commercial school had to make provision for one or more languages, bookkeeping, shorthand, etc. Other courses varied according to the purposes for which they were provided. The grant for the average attendance was higher than for advanced departments, and was graded according to the year of the course, the grant for a pupil in the third year being almost double for one in the first. Higher rates of grant, too, were provided for the higher-grade schools in thinly populated districts. While a large measure of initiative was left to managers in proposing courses, it should be observed that the Scotch Education Department issued model schemes of instruction in science!

Ample witness to the success of these changes is borne by the statistics in the report for 1902. We find that there had been issued in that year 22,886 merit certificates; and that 374 advanced departments had been recognized as satisfactory, having a total of 8,322 scholars upon whose attendance grants were paid; and that 35 higher-grade schools had been recognized with 1,040 pupils taking a science course, 2,190 a commercial course, and 591 other courses.

SUPPLEMENTARY COURSES (1903)

But other developments were in progress; for scarcely had the system as just detailed been inaugurated when the Education Act (1901) was passed, which raised the age of exemption from attendance at school from twelve to fourteen. This at once affected the standard of the merit certificate, the purpose of which was to mark the completion of the elementary-school course. At this time many pupils qualified for the certificate, and yet, being under age, were not entitled by the new act to leave school. It was therefore necessary to provide such pupils with a systematic course of instruction other than a purely secondary course, which was far from suitable for them. Accordingly the opportunity was taken to reorganize the whole system of education in the senior classes of the elementary school. The first step was taken by fixing anew a definite standard of attainment which should mark the completion of a purely elementary edu-

cation. This stage had been previously marked by the merit-certificate examination; for the future, however, it was to be marked by the "qualifying examination," which might be taken at or about the age of twelve, but which carried with it no certificate. The next step was to institute courses of instruction under the collective name of "supplementary courses" extending over two years (age twelve to fourteen) and variously styled industrial, commercial, rural, or household management courses. The merit certificate, still retaining its primary significance as the "goal of the elementary school," was to mark the completion of such a course. Finally, advanced departments were abolished, but the option was given to the larger and better-organized of them to take the rank of higher-grade schools, and to provide, not a course predominantly scientific or commercial, but a course of a more uniform type to be called an intermediate course. The remaining advanced departments fell into the group taking supplementary courses. During the next few years a great expansion in the number of higher-grade schools occurred, so much so that in 1906 we find the number had increased to 141, and that they "covered the country like a network, hardly a single county being without one."

GROUP CERTIFICATES

Considerable changes have occurred with regard to the issuing of certificates in connection with the leaving certificate examination. Formerly certificates were issued for passes in each grade (lower, higher, or honors) of a subject without any reference to a curriculum. Obviously such a system lent itself to abuse, and the presentation of pupils in one subject for the sake of swelling returns, or gaining the grants offered in many cases by the county committee on secondary education, was quite common. A step in the direction of remedying this was taken in 1900 when a "group" certificate was issued as an experiment. By this time, however, the leaving-certificate examination had assumed large proportions. In this year 83 higher-class schools had sent in 5,307 candidates with a total of 21,086 individual presentations, and 348 higher departments had put for-

ward 11,464 candidates who sat for a total of 33,239 papers; altogether we have a total of 54,325 presentatons, involving an issue of nearly 24,000 certificates.

Two years later (1902) a considerable advance was made by instituting two classes of group certificates—the *leaving certificate* proper, which was intended to mark the completion of a full course of secondary education, and the *intermediate certificate*, which was “primarily intended to meet the case of those schools which, although they might be doing valuable work in secondary subjects, were yet unable, from one cause or another, to retain their pupils long enough to enable them to reach the standard of the Leaving Certificate proper.” Certificates for successes in individual subjects were abolished, but documents certifying to successes in particular subjects were issued. To prevent over-pressure, the minimum age at which a leaving certificate would be issued was fixed at seventeen; while the corresponding age for the intermediate was fifteen. While certain combinations of subjects were specified, certificates were not to be issued merely on the strength of the requisite number of passes in the written examinations. The Scotch Education Department had to be satisfied that the instruction given had been of adequate range and quality, and that due attention had been paid to those elements of the curriculum that did not admit of being fully tested by written examination, such as the range of reading in English, the training of the ear in modern languages, and the continuity of studies.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

In recent years various developments have occurred, one of the most important being in connection with leaving certificates. An attempt has been made to place the intermediate certificate upon a “satisfactory permanent basis.” In a circular issued this year (1906) it is stated that the

essential purpose of the intermediate certificate is to testify to the successful conclusion of a well-balanced course of *general* education suitable for the requirements of pupils who leave school at fifteen or sixteen, or, alternatively, of pupils who, although they continue in attendance until seventeen

or eighteen, deem it desirable to devote the last two or three years of their school life to some form of more specialized study—literary, scientific, technical, or commercial. The fundamental conditions of issue ought, therefore, to be, that the course of education, to the completion of which it testifies, is sound, judged by educational principles; that it has a clear aim and purpose; and that, in each subject of the course, the instruction is given by teachers of proved competency.

An intermediate course of instruction prepared in accordance with these principles, and extending over three years, has to be submitted to the Scotch Education Department for approval. Such a course is expected to include instruction in the following subjects: English (including geography and history), mathematics (including arithmetic), experimental science, drawing, and one other language besides English. The qualification for entering upon this course is a satisfactory pass in the qualifying examination. Only on the completion of the full course of three years may a pupil be presented for examination for the intermediate certificate.

Each subject of examination must be taken in the same year, and on the lower-grade standard. In connection with this examination a method similar to that adopted in the science examination has been followed; that is to say, the teacher and the inspector co-operate in assessing the value of the pupil's work. "In future no intermediate certificate will be granted or withheld without fair consideration of the deliberate judgment of the teachers as to the proficiency of the candidates as shown by their work in school." The institution of this general course of instruction for the intermediate certificate, as will be seen, affects the curricula of both higher-grade schools and higher-class schools. The specialized courses of the former, already discouraged, will tend to disappear, and this more or less homogeneous three-year course will take their place. With regard to the higher-class schools, since the acquisition of an intermediate certificate is to be made a condition precedent to a pupil entering upon a course of study leading up to the leaving certificate, it practically follows that such schools must adopt an approved intermediate course. How far the intermediate courses of the various schools will be approximated remains to be seen.

Thereafter the courses leading up to a leaving certificate normally extend over two years. Candidates for the certificate must have passed in four subjects on the higher-grade standard, or in three subjects on the higher-grade standard and two on the lower. Mathematics and higher English are compulsory. The remaining subjects may be science with one or more languages, or languages only. If the latter, one language must be Latin.

Other certificates, such as commercial and technical certificates, testifying to the satisfactory completion of a post-intermediate course in commercial and technical subjects, have been contemplated for those schools which provide a special staff and equipment, and which work under an approved course of instruction. Up to the present, however, they have not been very successful. As for the schools presenting candidates for the leaving-certificate examinations, we find that they had increased from 29 in 1888 to 393 in 1905; and that, in the latter year, 499 leaving certificates proper, and 841 intermediate certificates, were issued.

Important developments in the method of conducting the inspection of secondary schools, too, have occurred within the last twelve months. In the larger schools each subject or group of kindred subjects has been intrusted to an examiner, who is instructed to visit the schools twice in the year. The first visit in autumn is directed toward ascertaining the methods and aims of instruction; whereas the second is occupied with results, and particularly with the general proficiency of candidates for group certificates. Teachers are expected to keep daily records of the actual work done with pupils, so that they may at all times be available as evidence of progress. The individual examiners report to the chief inspector, who issues a report on the school as a whole. As showing the great expansion of this higher inspection, it will be remembered that in the first inspection in 1886, 38 schools were inspected; whereas in 1905 as many as 110 applied for inspection.

Finally, a change in the nomenclature of the various schools was officially introduced in this year (1906). A *primary* school is mainly concerned with elementary work, and its pupils, as a

rule, are below the age of fourteen. The certificate of merit is the goal of this school. An *intermediate* school provides a three-year course of secondary instruction, beyond the qualifying examination stage, leading up to the intermediate certificate, and corresponds generally to a higher-grade school. A *secondary* school provides at least a five-year course of secondary education beyond the same stage, and corresponds, as a rule, to a higher-class school. But these are not hard and fast distinctions. In many cases the work in the different schools overlaps, and we find a primary school with small groups of pupils taking intermediate or even secondary work. In the same way, a higher-grade school may be a full secondary school.

CONCLUSION

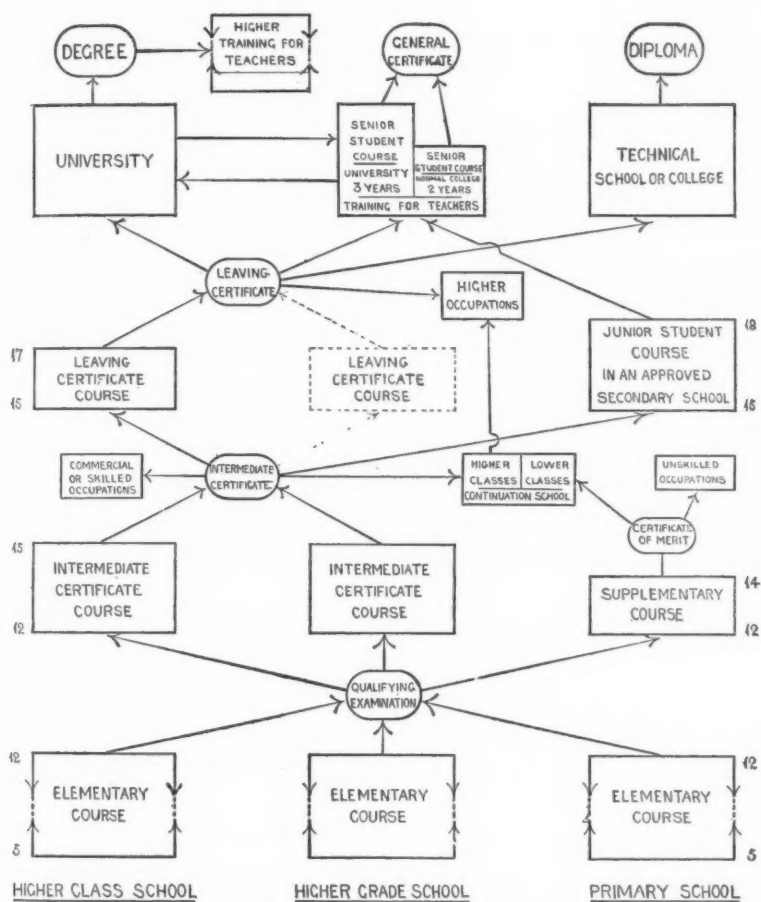
We have shown how higher-class public schools had their origin in the old burgh and grammar schools, and we have traced their developments down to the present time. We have also shown how the traditions of the old parish school, in respect of higher instruction, were conserved by means of "specifics," and that out of these in course of time there developed advanced departments and higher-grade schools on the one hand, and supplementary courses on the other. Incidentally we have commented upon the growing power of the Scottish Education Department in respect of secondary education. We have seen that its influence on the higher-class public schools was at first small, and that until 1886 it did little more than occasionally acquiesce in or disapprove of certain proposals of little importance to secondary education generally. But since then its powers have been greatly extended. By undertaking the inspection of higher-class schools in 1886, and the leaving-certificate examinations in 1888, it became an important factor in directing the organization and molding the curricula of secondary schools. A few years later (1892), through the medium of the burgh and county committees on secondary education, and the distribution of the "equivalent" grant, it acquired, inasmuch as the building, equipment, staff, and curriculum were now subject to its approval, a very large measure of control over those higher-

class schools which shared in this grant. Again, in 1897, when the administration of science and art grants in Scotland was transferred to it, a further controlling factor was introduced; while in 1899 the secondary-education grant, in which practically all the higher-class schools in Scotland participated, was directly administered and distributed by it. Finally, by its complete control of the leaving-certificate examination it has been strong enough to initiate a three-year intermediate course, and to determine its upper and lower limits; to define a leaving-certificate course, and to fix the minimum age at which the certificate shall be issued; to define intermediate and secondary education, and thence to classify every school in the country; in short, to direct and control practically the whole field of secondary education in Scotland. It would have been strange had such developments passed unchallenged, and that adverse criticism has been so ineffective is due partly to the general excellence of the changes, and partly to the wise and skilful policy which has directed them.

We cannot refrain from bestowing a few encomiums upon the two able men who have directed and energized these important movements. To Sir Henry Craik Scottish education owes much, while to his successor, Dr. Struthers, the majority of the developments in recent years are due. Through the efforts of these two men ancient and honorable traditions have been conserved, modifications due to the varying conditions of modern progress have been successfully initiated, and Scottish secondary education has been enabled to take rank as one of the best-organized educational systems in the world.

BOOKS QUOTED OR CONSULTED

1. McCrie's *Life of Melville*.
2. James Melville's *Diary*.
3. Grant's *History of the Burgh Schools of Scotland*.
4. Macmillan's *John Knox*.
5. Craik's *A Century of Scottish History*.
6. *Report by the Commissioners on Schools in Scotland* (1868).
7. *Report by the Commissioners on Endowed Institutions in Scotland* (1881).
8. Graham's *Manual of the Education (Scotland) Acts*.



DIAGRAMMATIC SCHEME OF SCOTTISH EDUCATION

(LOWER LIMIT OF AGES GIVEN)

9. *Report of the Committee on the Distribution of Science and Art Grants (1897).*
 10. *Reports by the Board of Education (Scotland).*
 11. *Reports of the Scotch Education Department.*

APPENDIX

A TYPICAL HIGHER-CLASS PUBLIC SCHOOL

1. No. of pupils 509; of these 212 are over 15 years of age.	
2. Contributions from common good.....	£ 271 14 0
Endowments	£ 158 15 0
School Fees	£2,306 8 0
Grant: county council (1892)	£ 486 0 0
Grant: Secondary education (1899)	£ 750 0 0
Grant: science and art	£ 929 8 7
Payments from school fund	£1,189 13 11
Other sources of income	£ 188 3 2
Total	£6,280 2 8

AESTHETIC APPRECIATION OF LITERATURE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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An editor of one of our English school classics, in his chapter on "Aids and Suggestions to the Teacher," has made the, to me, surprising statement that no secondary teacher can hope for more from his pupils than an intellectual appreciation of the masterpieces of literature. Indeed, he went so far as to say that from college classes in the sophomore year, he had succeeded in securing nothing more. The aesthetic taste, he affirms, the fine feeling for the beautiful and imaginative, is a development of later growth. In other words, the boy who sits poring over King Arthur, Beowulf, Siegfried, Achilles, and Hector until his young imagination is all on fire with that fierce, life-giving heat which kindled the great hearts of primitive heroes to such mighty feats of "derring-do," cannot respond to the subtle imaginative element in literature as can the sophisticated youth, who has passed through a course of junior forensics, and has learned in his critical study of the early English and mediaeval periods that the Grendel story is a myth, which probably originated in the fact that a great bear had once invaded Heorot; that the men who went in search of the Holy Grail were grossly immoral; and that the fair ladies, whose "bright eyes rained influence" from the balcony of the tournament, were the very reverse of "spirituelle."

Before entering upon this discussion, it might be well to define the term, "aesthetic," as it will be employed in this paper. Professor Sherman, of the University of Nebraska, bases his method for the analytic study of English upon the theory, advanced by Emerson, that all the elements which go to make up a piece of literature may be classed under two heads, the true and the beautiful. The true is that which appeals to the intellect; the

beautiful is that which appeals to the senses, or imagination, in its lower flights. The highest imagination, which he terms "vision," I think he would consider the expression of the essence of truth, that truth which is one with beauty. Let us then take as a broad definition of aesthetic, that which appeals to the emotions and to the imagination, without trying to reduce this psychological problem to its physical and psychical terms.

According to this definition, if we accept the view of our editor, we must believe that the dominant note of Wordsworth's "Ode to Immortality" is a lie. Yet our own hearts and the memories of our own youth echo the lines:

Our birth is but a sleep and a forgetting;
 The Soul that rises with us, our Life's Star,
 Hath had elsewhere its setting,
 And cometh from afar:
 Not in entire forgetfulness,
 And not in utter nakedness,
 But trailing clouds of glory do we come
 From God, who is our home:
 Heaven lies about us in our infancy,
 Shades of the prison-house begin to close
 Upon the growing boy,
 But he beholds the light, and whence it flows,
 He sees it in his joy;
 The Youth, who daily farthest from the East
 Must travel, still is Nature's Priest,
 And by the Vision splendid
 Is on his way attended:
 At length the Man perceives it die away,
 And fade into the light of common day.

Yet, though this passage supports my theory, I consider it but a half-truth. To find its complement and corrective, turn to Lowell's prelude to the *Vision of Sir Launfal*:

Not only around our infancy
 Doth heaven with all its splendors lie;
 Daily, with souls that cringe and plot,
 We Sinais climb, and know it not.

I quote these lines of the American poet that I may not be misunderstood, that I may not seem to go to the other extreme,

as Macaulay appears to do in his "Milton," when he argues that only in early childhood is the purest imagination possible. Of course, every thinking man or woman will say that only in manhood, when the crude pedantry of college days has become knowledge assimilated to life, when we have learned to see the truth of beauty and the beauty of truth, when the lines of the poet answer, throb for throb, to the beating of our own heart's joy or sorrow, can we truly climb the "Sinai" of literature. But this is not the question. The point I am trying to make is that this fine appreciation is not a gourdlike growth, springing up with maturity, but the result of a development which begins with birth, and perhaps, as Wordsworth says, before it.

What is this fine, evanescent element, without which no piece of writing deserves the name of literature; this something before which the most up-to-date critic must pause and await further developments in psychology, but the product of that equally evanescent, equally wonderful, thing we call imagination? If, then, childhood and youth is, as we all admit, pre-eminently the time when the imaginative powers are most active, and if like responds to like, why is it that the author's imagination fails to strike fire from the child's? Why must we keep our girls and boys in the shadow of that dark roof of intellectual appreciation, which shuts off from them the spaceless vault above, through which,

Heaven's light forever shines.

In the nature of things, there seems to be no good answer to this question. And, yet, our editor must be speaking truth, when he tells us that he finds no vestige of the poet's "trailing clouds of glory" hovering over his classes, and can only hope they will rise on the horizon of matured manhood. Yes, he is speaking truth, as hundreds of his fellow-teachers in English will testify from their own experience. Now if this state of things exists, and if, as we have seen, there is no inherent reason why it should exist, wherein lies the difficulty? This question was answered in a very startling fashion by a girl in the third year of the high school, with whom I was conversing recently. I was telling her of the intense appreciation of *Evangeline* shown by a little

boy in one of my preparatory classes. "Oh," said this wordly wise young woman of sixteen, "they will soon knock that out of him." A pessimistic view, but I felt that my young friend had put her finger on the weak spot of our English work, and said, "Thou ailest there." If the high-school teacher finds that his class as a whole is insensible to the best part of literature, that he can feed them only the husks, he may rest assured that the fault lies either with himself or with the child's previous training in home and school.

If he finds that the fault lies with himself, how shall he remedy it? Perhaps there will be no remedy short of giving up the work, and turning his attention to some other branch to which he is better adapted. We all know that the ideal teacher of English, like the poet, "is born and not made." By this, we do not mean that training is not necessary; on the contrary, English-teachers need a great deal more training than the great majority of them have actually had, but this is irrelevant to the present discussion. The point I would emphasize is that in this case training *per se* will not avail. Yet, how slowly some of our educators are opening their eyes to this truth! Even in our best schools they will put the English class in the hands of men and women totally unfitted by nature for the work, hard-headed, soulless, loveless, lifeless, colorless individuals, who might much better be employed in teaching mathematics, or better still, outside of the schools altogether. A person of this type never wrote, in his youth, surreptitious little poems and stories, which he fondly dreamed would some day appear in a collection of his "earliest works." He never wandered off from his companions to some lonely place to lie under a tree, where he might listen to the myriad notes of woodland life, or let the "witchery of the soft blue sky," as it gleamed through the branches, "melt into his heart." He never arose at midnight to gaze with hushed, breathless awe at the silent, eternal mystery of the stars. He never saw all his world transformed and glorified by the glow of Aladdin's lamp, nor did he ever, like "Chad," in *The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come*, joust with a ram for a charger, after reading *Ivanhoe*. Oh no, he, or more likely she, never did

any of these things. Perhaps he was always making toy boats or engines, and it may be that she, like the aunt of Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm, had never once caught a glimpse of that magical realm of dreams and romance, to which children, and those fortunate men and women who have kept the hearts of children, love to flee when rasped by the commonplace. Yet there they are, seated behind a desk, authorized to train souls, emotions, sensibilities, to cultivate the beautiful side of character, to win appreciation for that mysterious something in literature, which the keenest critic cannot define. O, teachers, if you ever find a Rebecca or a Chad in your classes, will you win them to the ranks of English-teachers, and turn all other aspirants aside into the subjects where it doesn't matter so much?

In sketching this character of the ideal English-teacher, I have not mentioned that side of his nature, which is just as essential as the one I have emphasized, but does not pertain to the phase of the subject I am considering. I refer to the calm, strong, logical reason, which constantly holds the imagination in check—that fine sense of form, order, precision, without which his work will become desultory and superficial, appealing perhaps to a few romantic girls, but not to the strong-minded, rational boy.

But waiving this as apart from our topic, let me come to the second difficulty. Granting that the high-school teacher has all these qualifications, he may at the same time have difficulty in arousing in his class that "fine frenzy" of literary appreciation.

In that case, if it is possible for him to trace the history of his class from the homes, through the grades which it has passed, he will find the secret of the trouble. In the first place, he will find few, if any, books in the homes, but since we cannot control the homes, at least not directly, let us leave this consideration, and accompany him through the grades which have done so much to mold his pupils. Perhaps he will find in the lowest grade of the primary school a colorless sort of teacher, without energy or enthusiasm, one who does not know how to tell a story, much less to act one, who teaches the childish songs in a dull, lifeless voice that stresses all words alike, and is absolutely incapable of

expressing tone color. And perhaps, though we trust this state of things exists only hypothetically, he may trace his class through the upper primary and grammar grades, without finding a single teacher with a spark of the true Promethean fire, but many, alas! with the power to smother the sparks of that fire, which it was their duty and privilege to fan into an ardent flame.

Grade teachers, it lies largely with you to determine whether or not the high-school pupil shall be debarred from the choicest part of literature. Your work cannot be undone; whether good or bad, it must stand as the foundation stone. And this foundation must be laid in the reading-class. If I had my way, every teacher of reading or of secondary English should have a rigorous training in voice-culture and elocution. An English-teacher, who is a poor, unsympathetic, colorless reader, is an anomaly that has no right to exist. The harm he may do the cause of literature, and through that the character of our youth, is infinite in its possibilities.

We have traced a class of pupils through the hands of a succession of teachers unfitted for their calling. Now look on the other side of the picture. Enter a primary room, where a sweet-faced, enthusiastic teacher is telling, with vivacious tone and lively gesture, the story of "Little Red Riding Hood." See her improvise a hood for Annie out of a red table cloth, and a cap for Jimmie out of a piece of cheese cloth, reserved for a duster. Watch Little Red Riding Hood trace her way fearfully along the supposed woodland path, between two rows of chairs, with the basket on her arm that teacher's deft fingers have fashioned from an old newspaper. Note the surprise in the childish tones as she interrogates the supposed grandmother, and the fierce, answering growl, with which the wolf reveals his identity. Then turn to the room, and see the agony of attention, note the hushed expectancy that follows upon this dread climax, and tell me whether this is or is not literary appreciation. This teacher, at the very beginning of the child's English training, has shown him *the life that lies beneath the word*. Just suppose now—though this is a supposition that can never be realized outside of an educational utopia—suppose, I say, that all the succeeding

primary and grammar teachers will be of the same type, suppose they all will be bent on revealing the life beneath the word!

This brings me to the solution of our problem, if solution it has. Let the English-teacher teach the life that lies beneath the word, and there will be no more occasion to complain of a lack of aesthetic appreciation. How little stress has been laid upon this life is painfully evident from the reading of the pupils who come to us from the grammar schools. Their pronunciation and enunciation may be good, and they may pay due attention to punctuation marks, but it is clear that the average pupil does not feel the full force of the words he is reading. You know that the two questions uppermost in his mind are, How shall I pronounce this word? and Where is the next punctuation mark? Take, for example, those speeches of Shylock, with their suppressed hiss of hatred and revenge. I have had pupils who insisted on reading them in exactly the same tone as they did Portia's inspired plea for mercy, thinking in both cases that their duty was done, if they had pronounced the words correctly. I have had seniors, who summoned Mirth and hailed Melancholy, without the shadow of a change in voice or feature. To such pupils, literature is little more than a collection of words and punctuation marks, which, arranged in a certain order, tell a story.

Perhaps my thought will seem the impractical one of a visionary, but the question I would like to ask is this: Can we not improve the reading, and at the same time the appreciation, of our pupils by breaking through the crust of words and showing them the living idea? Our Teutonic ancestors delighted in stories of great treasure hidden beneath a rock, and guarded by a dragon. The idea with us is often like the hidden treasure, concealed by the word, guarded by the dragon custom. Let us be modern Beowulfs and, slaying the dragon, remove some of these rocks.

Beginning with a line from Tennyson's *Princess*, "I read a page that *rang* of tilt and tourney;" how shall we read that word "*rang*"? Just forget the word, and listen. What do you hear? The blare of the trumpets, the thunder of hoofs, the shock of the charge, the din of the spears as they strike the shields, the

clang of the battle-axe on the helmet. Now read the line for the boy, and as he repeats it after you, his imagination fired by that vision of a glorious past, note if there is not a ring in his voice and a flash in his eye. Next, take a word from Lowell's *Vision of Sir Launfal*:

The flush of life may well be seen
Thrilling back over hills and valleys.

What a mine of treasure is concealed beneath that word "thrilling"—the flowing of the sap, the struggle of the seed-leaves, the upward striving of the grasses, the bound of the brook as it leaps from its ice chain, the flutter in the breast of the bird as it pours forth its love-song. Make the child *feel* all this, then tell him to say "thrilling." We have many words in our language that, to the true thinker, are as rich in suggestion, and as fresh in feeling today as their roots were to the primeval man, who invented them by laying his ear close to Nature's heart, and translating its beats into human speech. For example, "murmur" is a sweet echo of the running brook, "rustle" is the sigh of the wind-swept leaves, "ripple" and "gurgle," the speech of the summer sea, "howl," "shriek," and "moan," the voice of the tempest. If we teach our pupils to read beneath the surface, I do not believe that they will say these words in the same tone as "and," "but," or "is."

Let us turn now from individual words to larger units of thought. When Hiawatha kills his first deer, it is easy, even for young children, to understand what that means to the Indian boy. Picture for them the youth hidden in the bushes, his arrow on the string, his bow distended, the palpitation of his heart as he takes aim, the moment of breathless uncertainty, the glad shout when the prey falls. Hiawatha is a boy no longer, but a hunter, a brave. Now read the lines,

Beat his timid heart no longer,
But the heart of Hiawatha
Throbbled and shouted and exulted.

Then turn to that passage describing the departure of Hiawatha from his people. What does it mean? The glory of a race is past. The white man's foot is on the neck of the proud brave.

The God of the black-robed chief sits in the place of Gitche Manito, the mighty. The blow of the axe drives away the spirits of the wood, and the great canoe with pinions casts its ominous shadow upon the big sea water. Let the little ones sound, as well as their young hearts are able, the depths of this great tragedy before they read,

And they said, "Farewell forever."
Said, "Farewell, O Hiawatha!"
And the forests, dark and lonely,
Moved through all their depths of darkness,
Sighed, "Farewell, O Hiawatha!"

I tried this experiment of reading beneath the surface with one of my classes last year. I was fortunate enough to have assigned to me one of the preparatory classes, corresponding to the eighth grade of the grammar school. Once a week, we had a lesson in *Evangeline*. I told my class that good reading was voice painting. I showed them how, with the voice, we could express, not only joy and sorrow, hatred and love, denunciation and pleading, but also light and shade, silence and tumult, rest and motion, height and depth, nearness and remoteness. Then we began. One little boy, with a big voice, impersonated excellently, "the deep-voiced, neighboring ocean." A little girl rendered the lines about "the murmuring pines and the hemlocks." And how delightful that word-painted poem was! The boys especially were keyed up to the height of appreciation, when we read,

Oft on sledges in winter, as swift as the swoop of the eagle,
Down the hillside bounding, they glided away o'er the meadow.

We pictured it all, the first smooth dash down the hill, the great jolt as the sled went over the "bumper," and then the long glide over the snowy level stretch at the foot of the slope. Every boy in that class was on a sled. On one occasion, after a pupil had read,

Faces, clumsily carved in oak, on the back of his arm-chair,
Laughed in the flickering light, and the pewter plates on the dresser
Caught and reflected the flame.

a girl raised her hand. "I do not like the way that was read,"

was her criticism. "The light flickered too slowly, and the pewter plates were dim."

This year's class, of the same grade, is ready to respond, with the same warm appreciation. A few weeks ago, we were reading the passage in *Evangeline* which describes the coming of evening and night, when the cows return from pasture, the horses come back, drawing the wains filled with the salt hay of the marshes, and the sheep straggle homeward, guarded by the dog. I held my book face toward my class and said, "Boys and girls, you don't care anything about those black marks on that page, do you? The pictures are not there. Where are they?"

Quick as a flash, someone answered, "In our heads."

"Yes," I said, "that is just where they are and what does the poet do?"

"Oh," spoke up one of my geniuses, "he just turns the crank."

"Yes," I replied, seizing upon the figure, "he just turns the crank. He is running the lantern, and the slides are in your heads."

It was inspiring to see how they caught at that idea, how eagerly they waited for the next slide to pass through their heads, and how ready they were to criticize, if some boy, in telling what was on his "canvas," left out a detail of the picture. My little genius became so excited that he could not keep his seat, but jumping up, exclaimed, with eyes flashing blue fire, "Oh, you can see it all! You can fairly smell that salt hay!" And at the close of the period, he lingered to tell me that the "English period flew."

My preparatory class of last year is now in the first year of the high-school course, and building upon the foundation already laid, I am giving them studies in the atmosphere of Irving's stories, as part of the work. The response is gratifying in the highest degree. They see so readily how the "fairy mountains," with their "magical," ever-changing hues, harmonize with the central theme of *Rip Van Winkle*, and going more into detail, they delight to show the adaptation of nature's mood to the human mood. They see at a glance why the Hudson should be so still, with one lagging bark on its glassy bosom, and why

there should be one lone crow, "winging its solitary flight" through the darkening glen, when Rip is going to sleep. Then, of course, they are ready for the contrast, when Rip awakes; now the dream is over, and with a start, we come back to reality, to the mountain stream, full of life and motion, to the eagle "breasting the pure mountain breeze," and to the whole flock of crows, sporting about a tree. Similarly, in the *Legend of Sleepy Hollow*, they enjoy finding the different elements which combine to produce the all-pervading feeling of drowsiness and ghostliness. After we had studied this piece, a little girl of twelve came to me one morning, with flushed cheeks and bright eyes. "Oh," she exclaimed triumphantly, "I've won them! I've won them!"

"What have you won?" I asked, smiling at her beautiful young enthusiasm.

"The souvenir postals of Tarrytown and Sleepy Hollow," she responded, spreading four cards on my desk. "Just look at that one," she went on eagerly, indicating with her childish finger a card, representing the old mill at Sleepy Hollow. "Look at those weeping willows, and that quiet stream! Did you ever see such atmosphere?"

This aesthetic element enters into our themework as well. In fact, every principle acquired in the study of a piece of literature is immediately applied to the written work. The result has been that from these young pupils ranging from the ages of eleven to fifteen, I have received productions, which I, at least, consider literature. Let me quote a few examples, all from the work of this one class, though when I try to choose, it is difficult, as all the work is of such a high order.

Here is the last exercise handed in by the little twelve-year-old girl already alluded to:

A SUMMER EVENING

The rippling sea is softly singing a lullaby to the fish floating dreamily near its surface; the cool winds glide softly through the trees, making the leaves fan the downy birdlings sleeping comfortably in the oval nest; a drowsy, restful darkness is slowly covering the land; and all is still, with the exception of the distant hooting of the owl, or the repeated calling of the whip-poor-will, whose note pierces the dark silence.

The next is a quotation from a composition of a boy of the

same age, who came to me at the beginning of last year and asked me if I would please let him see some other pupil's composition, so that he might get an idea how to write one of his own. The paragraph is taken from a theme entitled, "A Walk by the Sea":

As I was half walking and half being blown along the rocky beach, I heard the invisible waves rise and go foaming and pounding down on the pebbles, which the undertow was drawing out, to send them back with that mighty and inconceivable force of the ocean. After walking along the beach a short distance I turned homeward where, while I was enjoying the fire on the hearth, I could hear above the howling of the wind the majestic roar of the ocean, which brought to my mind the wonderful powers of the Almighty God.

The following is from a recent composition by a boy of fifteen, who last year handed in a few crude little attempts in which I discovered a fine feeling for nature. On inquiry, I found that he spent most of his time in the woods. I immediately became interested, in spite of his atrocious spelling and sentence structure. What I am about to quote is from a copy which he revised himself, with but very little assistance from me in the matter of technique. The thought is all his own. The theme is entitled, "A Ride":

The locust was singing his song, and little Dame Song Sparrow flew on the old weather-beaten and broken-down fence, then after pruning her feathers, flew away into the bush. As I neared a clump of low bushes near the road, Mother Quail, with her half-grown flock of young, fled, with a whirl of wings, into the neighboring forest. I turned into a sandy road, which led to the woods, and then out into a little village. The horse was hot and sweaty, and my throat and lungs were parched for water. I stopped in the center of the forest. The air was scented by the pine cones, and gum and sap stood on the rough bark and knots, which looked as if the sun had scorched the life-blood out of them. Oh, how I longed for a drink of cool water, but no spring was to be seen. The poor foliage seemed to hold up its leaves toward the sky and beg for rain. In many places, were the wood-violets, withered and gone to seed, and a little Solomon's seal here and there, with the tips of its leaves all brown. Along the sides of the road, was the goldenrod, and a few leaves of the woodbine were turning red and yellow. The clover tops showed their brown heads in the meadow. Onward I went, nearly exhausted by the heat. I threw off my jacket. The dust rose up in clouds from under the horse's feet.

I will conclude these citations with part of a theme, entitled, "The Little Sea Gull," written by a girl of thirteen, when in the eighth grade, the girl who criticized the reading of the passage from *Evangeline*, about the flickering fire-light:

Far above the nest were hundreds of white gulls, screaming and screeching, as they floated on their broad, white wings, and looking with their fierce eyes, now at the meadow, now far off on the blue-gray sea, which swept in, in oily waves, and broke and retreated in long swashes from the stony shore. Ten miles to the north, lay the mainland, its hazy gray mountains rising like tidal waves against the sky, but the open sea stretched far to the south, east, and west in solemn, mighty silence. Wild and free, free and wild, was the ceaseless song of the gulls, and the ocean, joining in with its deeper, more powerful music, filled you with a longing for this wild life, a desire to be a part of it yourself and to feel its freedom. But the little brown gull knew nothing of this, and was wondering in a vague, sleepy way, why the great noise and screaming had stopped, not troubling, however, to open his eyes and see that the sun had set, and that in its place, was a great golden moon looking down on the quiet sea and scattering untold wealth over the waves. But he heard the gentle southwest wind, which had sprung up and was murmuring through the green firs not far away, sighing a soft lullaby. "Choo-oosh, choo-oosh," sobbed the sea; and the wind murmured "who-oo-oo-who-oo-oo, choo-oo-oo;" and the little gull put his head down and went to sleep. And the moon, looking down, nodded her head as she saw him, and said, "I know, I know. Some day he will be the leader, for he will be wise and strong." And the great hollow trunks of the dead trees, shining silver in the moonlight, echoed, "Yes, yes, he will be wise and strong. We know, we know."

And yet, in spite of all this, there are those who will say we must not look for aesthetic appreciation from the young, who will tell us that the one aim of the high-school instructor in English is to teach pupils how to make fine grammatical distinctions and to write a correct sentence, teachers who will groan over Irving's bad English instead of putting their pupils in touch with his warm, genial, sunny personality; teachers who will pounce upon the luckless individual who drops his voice at a comma, but will remain supremely indifferent while he reads,

And through the dark arch, a charger sprang,
in the spiritless tone that would describe the jaded motion of
a cart-horse.

English teachers, "Accuse not nature; she hath done her part; do thou but thine."

THE CORPORATE LIFE OF SCHOOL

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A striking change can be witnessed in the attitude which English and American teachers display in regard to each other's professional work. Twenty years ago no one in England thought that there was anything to learn about school craft by crossing the water; and I fancy that within even a shorter period similar skepticism was prevalent on the other side. The change is delightful, and its benefits could be illustrated from many points of view.

But there are dangers attending this new study: it is all too easy for people to run about and "visit" schools for a month or two, gain fleeting impressions of what shows on the surface, and return with the idea that by these easy, butterfly methods they have appreciably assisted their own powers or insight. At the present moment in England one is constantly hearing proposals defended on the ground that "this is the American plan," just as twelve years ago some reformers expected their ideas to be at once welcomed because "Germany" was in favor of them. I need not dwell on the falsity of such statements, or the weakness of the logic; but it would be worth while to consider the right way of going about the business of foreign travel.

One suggestion must suffice just now: the traveling teacher needs to seek out the *distinctive features* of the country he visits—he must know something of their history, their tendencies, their ideals, their traditions, and then he can inquire: What, on the basis of these elements, are the special characteristic features of the school system? As are the people, so are the schools; if they in their political, social life have done anything of worth, the reflection of that will appear in the school system—not perhaps in the books on education, for they often exhibit nothing more than training-college "shop," written by men who,

to equip themselves for their task, forsake the common life of the people and produce work largely out of touch with the real forces affecting the nation and its teachers.

To apply this criticism to the English secondary school: When a foreigner, German or American, comes to such a school, he goes into the classes, has a little talk with some of the teachers; admires this lesson, emphatically does not admire some other lessons; talks a little about the place of the classics or the advantage of science teaching; sees a cricket or football match and compares it with baseball. Then he has come to the end of the story? No, in my opinion he has scarcely begun! I do not say that such an experience is without profit; interchange of ideas, the novelty of meeting colleagues in a profession who speak the same language, but work on different methods, is always refreshing, but I do say that such a visit gives the traveler little insight into the distinctive qualities, good or bad, that make the English schoolboy and his teacher what they are.

I am going to try and illustrate what I mean by treating of one aspect of school life, viz., the school *as a society*. I believe that it is on this side of things that England has something to offer that is worth studying, that the English schools, without any philosophy to guide them, were compelled by the conditions of the age and were assisted by the genius of a few great teachers, to attain to principles that will stand the test of time, since they are universal in their character.

It must be premised, for fear of misunderstanding that the social life and ideals which demanded the English secondary school (i. e., "public" school in the special sense) were those of the middle and upper classes. The uncultivated artisan and laborer were only beginning to realize the need of elementary schooling, so no question arose of popular secondary education. New popular secondary schools have recently sprung up in the large towns, and they are going to play a great part among us, but the principles of which I write had another origin, and have scarcely had time to be adapted to the novel circumstances of these new secondary "municipal" schools. Now the fact that these "public"

schools bear to some extent the marks of caste has, I am aware, led to prejudices in the eyes of American students. They have been unwilling to believe that sound truth can be discovered under conditions which suggests aristocracy. But this is a serious error; if Arnold of Rugby and Thring of Uppingham have nothing to teach us, then we should be equally justified in refusing to learn from the story of education at Athens and Sparta. I should not refer to this except that I know it to have been a stumbling-block to some of my American friends. I, with them, am a man of the people, and hold no terms with those who try to maintain class distinctions. But the student and the historian must distinguish what is accidental and temporary from what is inherent. The principles that inspired Arnold and his contemporaries were not based on caste, but on experience of human nature, of adolescent nature and its needs.

Their work lay in the boarding-schools. How it came to pass that boarding-school education played so great a part in England is interesting, anyway. I went into it a good many years ago,¹ but the scope of these pages will not permit of the digression here. Suffice it to say that in the first half of the nineteenth century, almost all the flower of the country's youth between 14 and 18 was collected in these boarding-establishments, and that some of the teachers, nay many of them, were stirred by the moral impulses of the day to study the mental and moral nature of these lads and to work out by experience a plan of education to answer to their needs. Thus was evolved a set of ideas, a type of training, an attitude toward school life, which, I repeat, is the chief distinctive element offered by us for the foreigner to study, on the side of internal school life, as apart from problems of educational politics.

One more *caveat* before we reach our proper theme. It is true that these ideas and methods were worked out in boarding-schools, and it may be thought on that account they are only applicable to that form of highly artificial society where scholars are segregated apart from family surroundings. But while it is true

¹ *Ueber d. Entwicklung des höheren Schulwesens Englands* (Doktor Dissertation; Teubner, Leipzig, 1893).

that many of the special devices adopted in English "public schools" are local and specific, the main principles that lay back of Arnold's mind were far broader in their application. The fact that the scholars were wholly with their teachers, month after month, was the one fact that enabled a teacher to make a thorough study of boy nature. The boarding-institution is certainly not a type to be imitated for the general purposes of schooling, but the history of schools shows us how greatly the study of education has been advanced where teachers of insight have lived wholly among children. And one remarkable fact about this English movement is that the essential features of corporate life, as worked out under the artificial conditions of boarding-life, have been transferred and are now being more and more transferred to secondary day-schools, as I shall hope to show in a subsequent article.

We are familiar enough today—or at any rate you in America are sufficiently familiar—with the conception of social efficiency as an end of education. The new pedagogy is shot through and through with this idea: we realize that the child must be fitted by school experience to serve social ends rather than individual ends, and the newer experiments in curricula, those of John Dewey above all, offer most daring attempts to put this matter to the proof. Sociology is going to lay hold of the school, and in course of time will transform the teacher's ideals and his machinery also. Now this entire field of thought was, of course, a closed book to Arnold and his fellow-schoolmen, but I venture to assert that in their practice they reached conclusions which stand very fairly in line with the social ideals of our newer pedagogy. So far as the curriculum is concerned, their achievements were slight, but they found matters of greater concern than curricula or method—they lived and moved in a society, in a community of boys, and the problem which pressed upon their minds was, How shall this society *here and now* be so organized as to grow, healthy and wisely, according to its present stage of development? Without calling it by that name, they were at work on a problem of genetic psychology, and were anticipating, by fifty years, the problem that Stan-

ley Hall has illuminated in his great work on *Adolescence*. What they saw was that this youngster was pre-eminently influenced by the social environment of his fellows, far more than by the direct teaching or suggestion of the schoolmaster; hence they placed, and still place, lighter value upon curricula than upon corporate life.

A few lines must suffice to summarize the principles which flowed out of the extensive practice of these schoolmasters. First of all they saw that the school society demanded *leadership*; although only five or six years might part the youngest from the oldest scholar, there existed within these years many stages of capacity, and the inferior stages are as ready to be led and to obey as the superior are ready to take the lead and to command. They found that, without plan or oversight, the school community divides itself invariably into such ranks, and the stronger take control, exactly as in any other "barbarian" community. Instead of suppressing this tendency they recognized it; they helped by regulation to insure that the leaders should be moral and intelligent as well as strong in physique and in will, and also to insure that the range of authority of these leaders should be limited so as to prevent the excesses of tyranny.

Secondly, they recognized that the large school community was too large to afford adequate interest and oversight of the individual scholar; he needs the society of his fellows, but he needs a comparatively narrow circle of friends and acquaintances, who make a society of their own, belonging to the greater world of the school as a whole and get bound to each other in more intimate fashion. Hence the development of what is known as the "House System," with its House tutor, a member of the staff, its House prefects or monitors (members usually of the Sixth Form), and its younger boys.

Under this system, every scholar leads a double life. In lesson hours he is taught in a class with classmates of the same intellectual attainments, but he changes his class from one term or from one school year to another; in the House however he is *a fixture during his entire school life*. His House tutor is a per-

manent guide and authority, and soon gets to know the lad better than any class teacher can know him; and the environment of his comrades of the House, who feed and sleep and play with him, is usually a determining factor in his development. Students of social organisms will recognize many parallels to this idea in the history of other communities—military, reformatory, and the like. Doubtless the House system lends itself to certain abuses, but experience has shown that, at its best, it offers admirable opportunities for the exercise of social activities such as are congenial to the young adolescent. For the heart of the matter surely lies in the fact that the things that matter most to a human life are those that present immediate ends to be struggled for and achieved here and now; the ideals of a curriculum may indeed be nobly conceived by the teacher and may be felt by him to be of pressing importance, but to the scholar they are remote, and often, at the early stages of endeavor, present merely a grind and drudgery as elements of distasteful studies. But in games, in athletics, in house management and discipline, problems are in the direct line of vision; right and wrong are presented for choice at every turn and the boy grows to manhood with a sense of power and readiness to accept responsibilities, with a sense of social values, and a readiness to fall into line and play his part, now in the ranks as a private, now in the forefront as a leader.

Arnold's special place in the establishment of these principles was not merely that he himself reorganized such a community at Rugby, and by his personal qualities trained men and boys in large numbers to live the right kind of life, but that (without being a professional philosopher) he had the power, far beyond his fellow-teachers, of thinking out the situation and of putting the practice into clearly expressed theory.

I have contrasted the emphasis which was laid by Arnold and his friends upon corporate life as an object of immediate attainment, with the more distant ends which are held in view by "reformers" at the present day, who think rather of reform in curricula and method as the means by which social efficiency is to be attained. We should however go astray if we regarded

these men, and above all Arnold himself, as indifferent to a wider outlook over adult society. Indeed, to the general student, Arnold is equally distinguished as a practical idealist in the field of politics and of history. He may indeed be regarded as the forerunner of that group of social reformers, liberal in politics, broad in theology, and intensely warm in popular sympathies, who did so much for the England of the '70's and '80's. Indeed his singular merit as a teacher lay in the vital connection which he made between the humdrum business of school-keeping and the large theater on which his boys were going to play their part hereafter. He was indeed a churchman, but in his ideal a new church and a new state were to be one, both infused with that saving grace of "moral thoughtfulness" which was the constant topic of his Rugby chapel sermons. He had ever before him a clear social ideal—he did not know the term "social efficiency," nor would he have accepted the view of life which is held by many who use that term, but his ideal was a noble one, and his conception of school was governed thereby at every turn. The school to him was a little church and a little state in one—a seed-plot from which the young shoots would grow, through the necessary stages of development, into citizens—citizens of a new England, at once active and devout, loyal to their ideals, prompt in control both of themselves and others, submissive to law, both human and divine. Such was the theory and the practice; how far has experience borne him out? How far has this public-school system really borne fruit, so that one can say: Here is an educational experiment, based on understanding of facts of human nature, aiming toward a definite ideal, which did actually in a measure succeed? It is my belief that the evidence here cannot be questioned by any careful student of English social and political life since, say, 1860. This evidence should not be connected solely, or chiefly, with Arnold's own work, though the accounts given by Stanley in his *Life of Arnold* are familiar enough; but it is far more important, although more difficult, to estimate the effects of school influence upon the thousands of young men who since 1850 have been sent out year by year from some fifty of these

well-known institutions, taking the lead in almost every department of professional, social, political, and imperial life. I add "imperial" advisedly because it is in the affairs of empire, rather than those of the province, that the peculiar training of these schools has found scope. The boarding-school severs the lad from provincial ties; Rugby is in Warwickshire and lies near Birmingham, but these facts have no relation to its history or influence. By detaching the boy from local ties, the school is inevitably drawn to find a field for patriotism in the larger sphere of nation and of empire. India has been governed by public-school boys and has surely been well governed. And the empire has needed thousands of servants of a like quality in many less-conspicuous dependencies. The names of hundreds of such men, little known outside their own sphere, are treasured in the records of Clifton, of Marlborough, of Harrow, and the young boys who enter these schools are early imbued with the tradition of public service that laid its hand upon their fathers. If the term "social efficiency" means anything, it is surely well illustrated here by the genuine service to humanity rendered in facts of governing responsibility by the class of men who were trained in these traditions.

An American will at once detect the dark side to this picture. England sent this choice flower of its culture to help the cause of England in foreign fields; meanwhile the soil of England itself was neglected. The public-school boy despises local politics, often despises his own city and his father's provincial interests. He thinks it honorable to be a magistrate in an obscure Hindoo province, while he would despise a seat on the Council Board of an English city. Hence the people's children who have grown up under another system of education; the artisan and laborer, who have learned their power and are beginning to realize their destiny in the state are in an alien camp. Quite recently there has been published a volume of essays,² which shows how deeply this cleavage between class and class is affected by cleavage in educational systems, and it would almost seem as if these "Public" schools, with their noble

²*The Public Schools from Within* (Constable), London, 1906.

traditions and fine organization were to serve in the future rather as a bulwark for class privilege than as a nursery of noble virtues. Hence it is worth while to consider how far these principles of corporate life can be found to operate under other conditions, apart from the special circumstances of the boarding-school in which they first found expression. To that question a good many minds have addressed themselves during the last thirty years. It was the first pedagogical question that I had to encounter when I commenced to teach, and I soon found that men of great experience, trained in the school of Arnold, were at work upon it. In due course I was enabled, as a headmaster, to try my own hand; and I can offer some evidence that these principles of corporate life are of the universal nature which I have described them to be, that they can be put into practice in a democratic country, in a municipal high school, quite as usefully as in the older boarding-schools. I propose in a second article to describe this movement, and therewith to show how its development in the city day-school has led on to another problem of reform, viz., the relation of the parent to the school.

Although I have written from the English standpoint, I hope that what I put forward may be regarded as sufficiently "universal" in its character to deserve consideration by American teachers. While writing this article I have read with great interest a number of articles in *The School Review* which show how from different points of view you are thrashing out the problem of corporate life. You have made many experiments in school cities;" I have just read the account—and criticism—by W. G. Bagley in his *Classroom Management* (Macmillan, 1907), but I cannot be satisfied either with his criticism or with the idea as worked out in American elementary schools. When Mr. Bagley turns his mind to the problem of social psychology in the school society, he will give us an exposition as valuable as the brilliant work he has done in portions of the two books he has now produced. You are troubled in the high schools with the problem of the school fraternity. If this were the place I should like to show how clearly Mr. W. B. Owen's article (*School Review*, September, 1906) brings to the fore the need

for some such organization as I describe under the title of the "House System." I agree with him that the secret fraternity should be forbidden; but in his concluding sentence he points out that some solution must be evolved. I have shown how Arnold and his contemporaries solved the problem for a certain grade of English schools; I hope in a second article to show how these and other principles may help toward a solution in schools of all types; for it must be accepted as the first axiom in modern pedagogy that the school is a social institution and as such must be permitted to work out its special mode of social life and thus achieve its ends both for the individual and for the community.

SOME RECENT CHANGES IN POINT OF VIEW IN THE STUDY AND TEACHING OF THE ANCIENT LANGUAGES¹

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The application of psychology to the study of language during the past quarter of a century has brought about a much better understanding of the nature of language on the part of specialists, but many teachers of Greek and Latin have failed, through no fault of their own,² to keep themselves informed as to the progress thus made. In consequence they have not made such modifications in their methods of teaching as are demanded by the altered conditions, and have fallen short of the higher standard of efficiency to which they might otherwise have attained. Furthermore, some who have followed the trend of progress in language study, have at times failed to grasp clearly the bearing and purport of the new ideas and have misapplied them in various ways; for example, not a few have been led to suppose that after all the Latin scholar can get along easily and successfully with little or no knowledge of Greek and Sanskrit, and have thus been led to minimize the value of the comparative study of the languages related to Greek and Latin (comparative philology).³ The evils attending this particular misapplication, which has arisen in the last two or three years, are only beginning to be felt; but unless they are averted one more influence

¹ A paper read at the Classical Conference of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club held at Ann Arbor in March, 1907.

² The rapid rise and growth of interest in such collateral studies as art, archaeology, and antiquities is partly responsible for this. These studies, though wholesome and essential, have, because of their freshness and concreteness, in some cases absorbed an undue amount of attention.

³ Of course the great scholars do not entertain this delusion. For example Wilh. Wundt (perhaps the most eminent of living psychologists) makes very extensive use of the results of the comparative study of languages in his *Völkerpsychologie*, while Karl Brugmann (one of the foremost students of

will be added to the many that are collectively operating to draw the attention of Latin students away from Greek and Sanskrit. The value of comparative philology for the classical student is no less now than it has been in the past; but its methods must be adjusted to the newer conditions. It is significant that while Brugmann in his *Kurze vergleichende Grammatik* has adjusted himself in many particulars to these new conditions the makers of Greek and Latin grammars lag behind. To realize the importance of the contributions which comparative philology has made to Latin grammar one has only to glance into Sommers's *Lateinische Laut- und Formenlehre*.

The responsibility for all these evils rests in large part upon the university and normal school professors who have trained and equipped the teachers. Accordingly it is one of their first duties to correct, as far as lies in their power, the evils to which they have contributed. And how to go about this? Six or seven school years of four or five recitation periods per week is, as all will admit, an insufficient amount of time in which to provide the prospective teacher with his preliminary equipment. Yet we who are fitting teachers do not wisely employ even the meager time allotted to us. We waste our efforts in teaching too much Latin grammar and too little Latin language.⁴ There is a vast difference between the two; it is almost the same as the difference between mediaeval and modern thought. We teach in large part what Aristotle, Sancius, Gottfried Hermann, and others have thought about the Greek and Latin languages: these languages themselves we teach only incidentally. This is putting the case baldly, yet I trust not too baldly. In spite of the many improvements introduced during the past decade or two the case is still very bad. Accordingly we should not fail to insist that the young people whom we are training to be teachers shall (language) says: "In the course of the present investigation attention might often have been called to instances which specialists endeavoring to give an historical interpretation to linguistic phenomena, have been led into error by a failure to observe the larger relations in which these phenomena stand."—*Demonstrativpronomina*, pp. 17 f. (The failure to which he refers is due to lack of acquaintance with languages kindred to that in which the specialist is working.)

⁴ See *The School Review*, Vol. XII, p. 394.

not only have a substantial grounding in the general science of language but shall also understand how these general principles are reflected in the Latin and Greek forms and constructions.

The traditional grammar has adopted the convention of dividing the phenomena it describes into three classes—sounds, inflections, and constructions. A half century ago there corresponded to this division a feeling on the part of grammarians, that genetically speaking sounds put together make “roots;” these in their turn, when put together or combined with endings, make words, which in their turn when joined together make constructions or sentences. To construct a grammar in this way would correspond to the gradual building up of a language out of its elements. In other words, it was believed that there was a period in the development of language when “roots” were formed from sounds; then at a later period the various endings were joined with these, thus forming words, which *afterward* were employed to build up sentences. Accompanying this was the feeling that words had an independent and permanent existence of their own, and that they had their permanent meanings, which might, to be sure, in the lapse of considerable periods of time be variously *modified*. This idea is very persistent, and the investigations and writings of most Latinists are permeated with it. It steals in unawares like Cicero’s *callidus et occultus adulator, qui ne se insinuet, studiose cavendum est; nec enim facillime agnoscitur*.

The application of psychology to the study of language both by psychologists and by linguists has led rapidly to the conviction that this point of view is wrong, and that the words “combination,” “union,” *Verbindung*, etc., which have constituted the main idea embodied in most definitions of the sentence that have hitherto been framed, fail adequately to describe the sentence as it really is. Instead of being regarded as the permanent result of a series of synthetic acts, the sentence is now seen to be a transitory mental process. Attention is not now directed so exclusively to the “finished product” as found in books. The stress is laid more upon the inner “content” of the sentence than on its outer form of expression. As to the nature of this process, we note that it is not exclusively synthetic, i. e., it does

not consist in the "putting together of words," as has been assumed. The general thought which a sentence is to convey is more or less clearly felt *before* the actual formulation (or utterance) of the sentence begins; that is to say, we have a more or less vague impression of what we are about to say even before we commence. The sentence proper is the organization of this indefinite mass of thought and feeling. This organization consists both in the analysis of the mass into its elements and the setting of these elements into their relation to each other. The process is therefore a double one; it is both analytic and synthetic.⁵

One of the most important changes that this better understanding of the sentence is bound to bring about in our methods of studying languages (more especially syntax) is this: we must no longer regard the word as something relatively permanent, which is *modified* by the context; it is a momentary and quickly vanishing mental process, having no existence outside of the sentence in which it stands, its meaning consisting largely in its relationships to the other words (concepts) with which it is most closely connected, to the general thought of the sentence, to the whole situation in which the sentence stands, and to the general state of mind (mood, etc.) in which the speaker for the moment happens to be. So it comes about that each concept in a sentence (the concepts in the sentences corresponding roughly to the individual words), contributes to the whole meaning of the sentence and in a greater or less degree determines the meaning of every other concept; or, negatively put, no one word expresses by itself a given concept: two or three or more contribute to its expression. Hence the futility of seeking the meaning of a word in a dictionary or vocabulary; and hence the evil effects of allowing pupils to depend upon their vocabulary for the meaning of words. Vocabularies and lexica have, of course, their value. They give *hints* and *suggestions* as to the meanings of words. But the *exact* meaning and application can never be learned from them. What good teacher of fourth- or fifth-year Latin is not obliged repeatedly to correct his classes

⁵ It is not necessary to raise the question here, as to how far this process, in some cases, goes on mechanically or automatically.

for translating *velle* by "wish," whether the concept which it represents in the sentence corresponds more closely to this English word or to "will," "seek," "try," "make it one's policy," or what not? We must get at the elements of meaning that are associated with a word by approaching it from the point of view of the whole of which it forms a part; we can study the word or any other significant group of sounds only in the sentence. For example, the various meanings assigned in the grammars to the Latin subjunctive are normally associated not with the subjunctive sign alone but with various other symbols as well. Very often some other words in a sentence contribute more largely to the expression of the meaning than the subjunctive sign or even the verb involved.

In this connection a second point should be emphasized which is often lost sight of. The meaning of a word in the sense implied in the preceeding paragraph is not something homogeneous and simple, but is complex, often very complex. It is a fusion of numerous elements of thought (sensations) and feeling, some of which are clearly seen and felt, while others lie more dimly back in the field of consciousness. The former are predominating elements, the latter non-predominating. Taken in this sense the predominating elements of a concept are those upon which at the moment of the formulation of the sentence the attention is most closely fixed. All the elements of the concept are bound up with one another, and their particular form and coloring is due largely to the part which they play in the whole complex, that is, to their relation to the other elements both of the concept of which they form a part and of the other concepts of the sentence. One or more of the elements, either a predominating or non-predominating, usually recurs in slightly different form on repeated occasions in different sentences. These are relatively permanent elements. The same element *may* be both a relatively permanent and a predominating element.⁶ Others appear only once or at least only

⁶ Some of the defects in the teaching and learning of languages are due to the failure on the part of both teacher and pupil to note that these elements are permanent (or rather, appear to be permanent) only because the differences between the various forms are not great enough to *force* themselves upon the

rarely (and then, of course, in somewhat different form) as elements of a concept: they are the transitory or variable elements. The concept symbolized by a word, i. e., the "meaning" of the word, may then be represented algebraically thus: Let the letters a, b, c , etc., represent the relatively permanent elements, the letters n, o, p , etc., the variable elements, the capital letters the predominating element(s). The whole concept will then be represented by the formula (1) $A(b, c, d \dots n, o, p \dots)$. The parenthesis includes all non-predominating elements. The dots indicate that b, c, d , for example, represent only three of the many relatively permanent elements, and n, o, p , only three of the variable elements. The predominating element may be a transitory one. We should then have the formula (2) $M(c_1 d_1 f_1 \dots n_1 o_1 p_1 \dots)$.⁷ The small inferior figures indicate that c_1 for example, is a *slightly* different element from c . A "change in the meaning" of a word may involve one or more of several types of change in detail. One or more of the non-predominating elements may disappear or one or more new non-predominating elements (for example, q, r, s) may enter into fusion with the new group or both alternatives may present themselves. Formula (1) would not represent this group, but we should have, for example (3) $A_2(c_2 d_2 \dots qrs \dots)$ or (4) $A_3(b_2 c_3 d_3 e \dots q_1 r_1 s_1 \dots)$ or (5) $A_4(c_4 d_4 e_2 f \dots q_2 r_2 s_2 \dots)$. Again the predominating element or elements may change, giving, for example, (6) $B(ac_5 d_5 \dots q_3 r_3 s_3 \dots)$ or (7) $E(b_3 c_3 d_6 \dots q_4 r_4 s_4 \dots)$; or both the non-predominating and the predominating elements may change. These few examples out of the many types of changes that occur illustrate how the elements of a concept shift from sentence to sentence. We ought really to say, they illustrate how one *new* concept after another is formed in sentence after sentence. So long as the successive forms do not differ too much, they remain associated with about the same motor sensations and secondarily with about the same sounds, that is,

attention. It is the resemblances that lend a certain pedagogical value to vocabularies; it is the neglect to observe the differences that leads to the abuse of vocabularies to which reference has been made.

⁷ Compare Wundt, *Völkerpsychologie*, Part I, Vol. II, 2d ed.

words. Any one may easily observe for himself a score or more of different "yes's" by watching attentively the answers of his friends for a few days. In fact, if he observes closely, he will probably not notice many that are too much alike to be readily distinguished from each other. They differ not simply as regards their "inner form," the concept, but also in sound. So they should be regarded as the distinct and separate words which they really are. From this point of view, as well as from the fact that the concepts are momentary mental processes, we have the fullest right to affirm that a word has no permanent existence. When once it is thought or uttered it vanishes. When the same word *seems* to recur in another sentence, it is really a different word not only locally and temporally but also qualitatively.

It would be superfluous to state here that one who is investigating a linguistic problem, should hold these facts, far reaching in their consequences, steadily before his mind. Morris' *Methods and Principles of Latin Syntax* (New York, 1901), aims to point out some ways in which our methods in research work should be modified. As for the teacher of Latin and Greek in the secondary schools and the undergraduate departments of universities, he may profit greatly by adjusting his instruction to these newer views. The writer at least has secured better results from his altered methods than from the older ones, although from his position his opportunities to teach beginning Latin are very limited. Of course, no attempt has been made to teach the abstract doctrines laid down in this paper, but daily the concrete embodiment of them in the reading exercises⁸ has been discussed and numerous questions asked for the purpose of bringing out as clearly as possible the function of each concept in the sentence and the nature of its relation to other concepts. The nature of the relation existing between successive clauses and sentences is examined and the various elements of the sentence that contribute to the expression of those relations have been noted. The wide difference

⁸ The Latin of the exercises must be a much closer approach to normal discourse than is provided in the detached sentences or even the "continuous prose" of most of our elementary Latin books.

between the meanings of the same word in different sentences and the large variety of special forms included in our broad grammatical categories have been pointed out. By attending to these details and many others a habit of closer observation has been fostered and greater accuracy in detail has been secured. The student comes to depend more upon himself and his Latin passage, and less upon his rules and vocabularies; he is encouraged to state the meaning rather than name the construction and the rule. The tendency to mechanical answers is checked by directing the pupils' attention to the differences as well as to the resemblances; and after all when the Roman used the phrase *Maccenas atavis edite regibus*, it was the specific and particular form and instance of separation that occupied his attention rather than the abstract concept of the ablative of separation.

If time permitted it might be helpful to give concrete examples of the application of these principles to the interpretation of Latin sentences. It seems inevitable that the traditional system of presenting facts adopted in our grammars should be materially modified. For one thing, the line between form and meaning is too sharply drawn; here some of our more recent beginner's books are making rapid improvements. Again the traditional division of words into parts of speech is inadequate even simply as a means of description, being full of inconsistencies due partly to the lack of any one systematic basis of classification and partly to the misunderstanding of some of the Greek and Latin technical terms involved. Certain it is that a large part of our grammatical formalism and our conventional views of language only serve to conceal the real nature of language and mislead the student, and it would be well if these were replaced by a plain and simple description of the facts without the cramping and warping conventions of formal logic.

DISCUSSION

BUSINESS HIGH SCHOOL

Washington, D. C., August 27, 1907

Editor of School Review, Chicago, Ill.:

DEAR SIR: I read the symposium on the study of Latin in your last issue with the greatest interest. As a teacher myself, and as a student of educational history for some years, I am prompted to drop you these few lines.

In the first place, as you know, the same conservatism has always been aroused whenever the slightest change has been proposed in the educational curriculum, especially when it comes to dropping out any branch. Two subjects now come to my mind, Hebrew and disputation. If you will go back into colonial history you will find some heartrending wails at the decline of interest among the students in Hebrew. Wigglesworth of the Harvard staff noted it time and again, almost with "tears in his voice" as Mr. Reed used to say. President Stiles of Yale poured forth the same lamentations as he witnessed the final gasps of disputation which was the biggest thing in mediaeval universities.

In the second place we have something more to go upon than mere deductions, no matter how logical and strong they may be. We have the most convincing of all arguments in this world—we have experience. There is a higher institution among us a century old, classing among its graduates leaders in law, in medicine, in science, in education, in business, in the ministry, in fact in all of the theaters of man's activity—and yet Latin has never been a required study there. Of course it is hardly necessary to state I refer to West Point. Annapolis would be another illustration with its U. S. Naval Academy.

Education is nothing but preparation in early life for the duties and demands of later life. If a certain discipline turns out men who are fully up to the average of their fellows in all roads of competition can we draw but one fair conclusion, especially after this success has been maintained for two or three generations? What can we say except that the training given there has been good? Now if that is done without Latin, how can we hold that Latin is indispensable for anybody, either there or elsewhere, of course barring a few technical exceptions?

I may say that I am a graduate of the classical course, having devoted years of my life to the thumbing of Latin and Greek texts and dictionaries, and having a diploma from John Hopkins University both A. B. and Ph.D. I may say further that I have still retained my knowledge of that Roman speech. I do not mean to parade my little education but simply to show that it is not a question of "sour grapes" with me when I urge some reasons for the dropping of Latin.

Yours very truly,
COLYER MERIWETHER

EDITORIAL NOTES

One of the most significant educational movements of the times is taking place in the colleges and universities throughout the country. Within the past three years there have been established departments of education in a number of colleges, in which previously only a few lectures on the history and principles of education were delivered each year by professors of philosophy or language or mathematics. In one well-known eastern college the pedagogical lectures, about a half-dozen in all each year, were in an older day delivered by the president, who always closed the "course" with the observation that "It really wasn't worth while to spend any more time on the subject, for no one knew much about it, and it didn't make a great deal of difference anyway." It was always plainly apparent that he had expressed himself in good faith, for he could completely exhaust his knowledge of the principles of education in considerably less than six lectures; and the sort of pedagogy he taught did not in truth matter much to anyone. In those days education was treated in most of the colleges in this fragmentary manner, by specialists in other and often remote fields; and this gave it a bad reputation.

But the day of that sort of thing is gone for good in nearly if not quite every college and university in this country, and an altogether different attitude is being assumed toward the history, the science, and the art of education. The ambition of many colleges now is to outstrip their rivals in equipping departments or schools or colleges of education. Elaborate announcements are got out showing swollen faculties in education, until it begins to seem that at last the teacher has come into his own. A perusal of these bulletins, some of them from the smallest colleges, leads one to enquire how it has happened that in so brief a space so much has been discovered respecting the science and art of education that it requires so many specialists to teach it. But upon closer examination the secret is revealed; the faculty list, and the

THE PEDAGOGICAL
REVIVAL IN
COLLEGES

catalogue of courses for teachers, are heavily padded. In one announcement that came to my table today, in which appears a list of a dozen professors and instructors in education, there are not more than two at the most who know anything about education in the sense in which we are here employing the term, and who are competent to offer courses specially designed for teachers. The rest on the list have been added for advertising purposes largely; and this college is not specially peculiar in this respect. Some of the great universities pad out their educational announcements, presumably to impress candidates for teaching. The teacher's courses which are announced are often only regular courses open to all students, whether interested in teaching or not.

One aspect of the situation which has interested the writer greatly is the speed with which the colleges have come to their senses in respect to this matter. Indeed, they have awakened so suddenly that the teachers' colleges have been utterly unable to provide for their needs. They have sent in hurry-up calls for professors of education in such numbers that the supply was exhausted long before the orders were filled. So we have the interesting spectacle now of universities with large plans for colleges of education, but with only an instructor or two to fill a dozen positions as described in the announcements. There is really a famine in professors of education, which can be laid partly at the doors of the normal school, for it has and does in many cases make more attractive offers to good men than do the colleges and universities. The normal schools are in earnest in their desire to secure the strongest men for their departments of education; but some of the colleges and universities are doing only what they are compelled to by force of public opinion, and the action of their competitors. Outwardly they are hurraing for education, but inwardly they are skimping just as much as they can, and taking every advantage they dare of the men in education. Many good men in the normal schools know this, and they cannot be dislodged from their present positions; and as a consequence the colleges and universities cannot live up to their prospectuses. If they would play fair, and make their internal

adjustments agree with their public pretensions, there is no sufficient reason why they should not draw to themselves some strong men who now remain outside.

But taking things as a whole, we who are interested in the development of education on a sane and scientific basis have good cause to be optimistic over the prospects. There is one tendency that must be vigorously combated, however, not only by professors of education, but more particularly by practical school men. This is the tendency to make college and university departments and schools of education merely propaedeutic and propagandic in their functions. Look over the catalogues of fifty of the leading schools and departments of education; in how many of them will you find any reference to research in education? Read the descriptions of the courses offered, and you will find very few that are not given over wholly to exposition of what is supposed to be known regarding the history, theory, and art of education. In most of the other departments of the universities, all of them older and better developed than this one, there is provision for original investigation; professors are expected to make contributions to the development of their subjects. But in education the instructors are loaded down with "practical" work, so that they have neither time nor energy to undertake original work. In some places the authorities do not understand how a man in education can earn his salary unless he is constantly teaching or visiting schools or attending conventions. There is still a good deal of "Hurrah! boys" about education in the colleges.

What we need to do is to see to it that departments of education are first of all investigating institutions. Education has not yet reached such a stage of development that we can devote ourselves entirely or even mainly to expounding its principles. If the deans of all these new schools of education will forgive me for taking the liberty of advising them, I would like to urge that they resist the popular demand to make every man in their departments an educational evangelist. Let them in one way or another so adjust matters that every man who has the taste and the ability will be an investigator in his special field. He will be

a better teacher for it; but more important than this, he will assist in developing a real science of education in the broad sense of the term. And practical school men should not get impatient because men in education cannot solve all their problems in a hurry. You cannot do scientific work on the jump; and unless school men are willing to wait as other people do for the results of careful investigation, we shall develop in education much more slowly than is the case in other sciences.

M. V. O'SHEA

BOOK REVIEWS

The Mythology of Greece and Rome. Presented with Special Reference to Its Influence on Literature. By ARTHUR FAIRBANKS. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1907. Pp. xvii+408. \$1.50.

When one considers the large number of books on classical mythology which are now accessible to the English reader, it would seem to require considerable courage to attempt another in the same field, but the results of Professor Fairbanks' labors have justified his courage in presenting again the classic tales, so old and yet so little time-worn, so familiar and yet so little understood. A complete and consecutive reading of the volume leaves one with a sense not only of the difficulty and magnitude of the task, but also of the fidelity and good judgment with which the task has been accomplished. While such a book can never take the place of a mythological dictionary, it is on the other hand true that the mythological dictionary will generally be found to be inadequate to convey the larger and organizing notions of unity, continuity, and local grouping under which the myths may so satisfactorily be considered.

In his introduction the author takes up such subjects as the definition of myths, the origin and development of myths, the interpretation of myths, mythology and religion. Brevity marks the treatment of these matters. Perhaps the intention was to whet, not satisfy, the appetite.

The main body of the work is presented in two parts: Part I, Myths of the Gods; Part II, Myths of Heroes. The heroes are effectively grouped, as far as possible, according to locality. Sound judgment and wise self-restraint have prevented the author from venturing too far into the field of interpretation, but readers of the book will doubtless be pleased, nevertheless, with the considerable number of interesting and seemingly justifiable suggestions touching the significance of the individual myths or of the supernatural beings that figure in them.

The array of quotations from Latin, English, and other literatures, and the host of references without quotation, are such as to accomplish a leading purpose of the book, viz., to show how the ancient classical myths have influenced later literature.

The illustrations, taken judiciously from a large number of vase paintings, from coins, wall paintings, statuary, etc., form an interesting and helpful feature of the work.

What appeared to me to be the few slight faults or defects of the book I respectfully subjoin: The god Priapus is not mentioned. He might well, perhaps, have been given a place (somewhat out of sight, if so desired) among the other nature divinities. On p. 287 mention might well have been made of the metamorphosis of Cadmus and Harmonia into serpents. Then the quotation from Arnold would have more point. On p. 170, l. 14 *Favorinus* should be *Favonius*. P. 368, l. 4 *nine* should be *eight*. Cf. II, II, 313. P. 275, l. 3 *father-in-law* should be *step-father*. P. 318, l. 19 *Isobates* should be *Iobates*. Violence is done the penultimate quantities of the following words as they appear

in the index with accents marked: Agāve, Echion, Eriphyle, Ixion, Lemures, Thalia. The index is not fully satisfactory either in accuracy or completeness. A few little mistakes in English or proofreading added to the above would make up the sum total of my strictures on a book the perusal of which has proved, as a rule, stimulating and satisfying in proportion to the care and pains spent in examining and testing it.

I will conclude with what may be thought more of a criticism on myself than on the book. Professor Fairbanks says (p. 141): "There was almost nothing of that sentiment of pleasure in the facts and phenomena of nature which we feel today; our love of the mountains and the plains and the sea, our enjoyment of a waterfall, our delight in an extended view, played little or no part in the life of the Greeks." I have never been able to believe what so many have averred about the alleged lack, on the part of the ancient Greeks and Romans, of an appreciation for the beauties of nature. Their literatures may not teem with enthusiastic references to such beauties, but in the aggregate there is in them much to indicate lively appreciation of nature's charms. Further, the charm and grandeur of view, from many of the sites chosen for their great temples and theaters, as at Athens, the Heraeum, Kalaurea, Epidaurus, and Sunium, not to mention others, make it difficult to believe that the aesthetic sense toward nature was in any wise lacking or in abeyance in those who selected those sites with their far and glorious views.

CHARLES E. DIXON

ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL
Brooklyn, N. Y.

The Arthur of the English Poets. By HOWARD MAYNADIER. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1907. Pp. viii+454.

The vigor and beauty of the Arthurian legends have made them popular through many centuries and in several languages. They have swayed gentlefolk and simple folk alike; they have been the basis for many a doctorate thesis, and (shades of old romance!) some of them are now set for college-entrance requirements in English. Yet the Arthurian legends are not merely a matter for embryonic doctors of philosophy and immature pupils in high schools; they are the stuff of which much of our modern art life is made. To know *Lohengrin*, the story of the Swan-Knight sent from the Grail Castle to aid Elsa of Brabant, to appreciate the great musical tragedy of *Tristan and Isolde*, to understand Wagner's *Parsifal*, to judge Mr. Abbey's mural decorations in the Public Library of Boston, and to read Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* intelligently, one must know something of the storehouse whence come these stories told in music, painting, and poetry. Consequently any book which enlightens us on the diverse sources of these legends, the course of their history, and their application in song and story is worth our serious consideration, and if it be a worthy book it should have our grateful commendation. Such a book is Dr. Maynadier's *The Arthur of the English Poets*. Dr. Maynadier begins his book with an account of the historical Arthur, of whose existence there is now scarcely any doubt, and traces the growth and variations of the Arthurian legends through the Middle Ages. The stories of Merlin, Lancelot, The Holy Grail, Tristan and

Iseult, are considered in their individual forms and in their combination by Sir Thomas Malory. Spenser and Milton, as students of the legends, are considered in two brief chapters, and then comes the unromantic period of prose and reason of the eighteenth century, a period, however, that did not entirely forget its heritage of these romantic tales. Then follows an adequate and sane treatment of these stories in the high tide of mediaevalism which found a source of enchantment, enthusiasm, and inspiration in these world-old legends. Finally, Dr. Maynadier, with well-balanced consideration, illuminates Tennyson's treatment of the theme. The work was well worth doing and the author has done it well. No teacher of English can afford to miss reading this delightful book. It is most scholarly in tone and treatment, and sympathetic in a just appreciation. That it is not a mere scratching among old books is evident from some charming bits of description dispersed throughout the book, notably on pp. 184 and 185, where Dr. Maynadier describes the coast of Cornwall at Tintagel in storm and calm. We feel confident that no reader of this book will be disappointed.

H. E. COBLENTZ

MILWAUKEE, WIS.

Corneille-Polyeucte. Edited with an Introduction and Notes by GEORGE N. HENNING, professor in the George Washington University. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. xxvi+108+41.

This edition of a play which the editor, following the majority of modern critics, assigns to the first place among Corneille's dramas, puts into the hands of the student the means for a thorough study of the masterpiece. The basis is the text of the "Grands Écrivains" edition. In the introduction the editor treats of pre-Cornelian tragedy, Corneille and his contemporaries, the religious drama, touches upon the current theological attitude of the time, and, lastly, discusses the *Polyeucte* itself. The dramatic structure of the play is analyzed in a very helpful manner. A suitable bibliography completes the introduction. The notes are exceptionally copious, but contain a larger amount of translation help than seems necessary to many. Considering, however, the early position of Corneille and his frequent use of words and phrases with meanings different from those found in the average dictionary, this may be a distinct advantage to the less-experienced student. The edition seems to be stimulating and adaptable.

H. R. BRUSH

HOPE COLLEGE
Holland, Mich.

Corneille-Le Cid, Horace, Polyeucte. Edited with an Introduction and Remarks by W. A. NITZE, professor in Amherst College, and notes by S. L. GALPIN, instructor in Amherst College. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1907. Pp. xxvii+306+87.

With the idea of providing apparatus for the study of Corneille and the earlier French classical tragedy, the editors have chosen three of the four dramas commonly assigned to the first rank, accompanying them with a well-written introduction and excellent notes.

Professor Nitze gives the student a very clear idea of the genesis of the

seventeenth-century French tragedy, leading up to his treatment of Corneille by a discussion of Jodelle, Garnier, Hardy, and Jean de Mairet. The relation of the dramas of Corneille to the Cartesian philosophy—to us a most important point in the explanation of their popularity—is more clearly brought out here than in any other American school edition that we have seen. The senior editor also vividly describes the historic “quarrel of the Cid” and explains the decline of Corneille before the more versatile genius of Racine. He magnifies somewhat the influence of the prolific Hardy, and his charge that Corneille had the fault of choosing “types” seems to be one that is characteristic of French literature rather than of Corneille alone.

Some points of less importance, commonly placed in an introduction, are left, probably advisedly, for elucidation in the notes. This is possibly the best place for them. The notes are exceedingly well written and avoid giving too much help in translation. They contain a world of information, direct and suggestive, on the literature, politics, and manners of the day, as well as explanations of many simple and interesting linguistic facts. This edition should be well received.

H. R. BRUSH

BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION

Pioneers in Education Series (five volumes). By GABRIEL COMPAYRÉ. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., 1907. About 130 pp. each. 90 cents per volume.

(1) *J. J. Rousseau, and Education from Nature*, translated by R. P. JAGO; (2) *Herbert Spencer, and Scientific Education*, translated by MARIA E. FINDLAY; (3) *Pestalozzi, and Elementary Education*, translated by R. P. JAGO; (4) *Herbart, and Education by Instruction*, translated by MARIA E. FINDLAY; (5) *Horace Mann, and the Public School in the United States*, translated by MARY D. FROST.

A Theory of Motives, Ideals, and Values in Education. By WILLIAM ESTABROOK CHANCELLOR. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1907. Pp. 534. \$1.75.

Pupil Self-Government: Its Theory and Practice. By BERNARD CRONSON. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. Pp. 107. \$0.90.

ENGLISH

Specimens of Modern English Literary Criticism. Chosen and edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by WILLIAM T. BREWSTER. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. Pp. xxxiii+379. \$1.00.

Scott's Quentin Durward. (Pitt Press Series.) Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Glossary, by W. MURISON. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons; London: Cambridge University Press; 1907. Pp. 515. \$0.60.

FRENCH

Extracts for Composition in French. (Heath's "Modern Language Series.") With references to Fraser and Squair's French Grammar, Notes, and Vocabulary, by J. E. MANSION, Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1907. Pp. 147. \$0.60.

GERMAN

Grillparzer's Die Ahnfrau. Edited with Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by FREDERICK W. J. HEUSER and GEORGE H. DANTON. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1907. Pp. 257. \$0.80.

SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS

Plant Physiology and Ecology. By FREDERIC EDWARD CLEMENTS. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1907. Pp. 315. With 125 illustrations.

A First Course in the Differential and Integral Calculus. By WILLIAM F. OSGOOD. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. Pp. 423. \$2.00.

First-Year Mathematics for Secondary Schools. By GEORGE WILLIAM MYERS, and WILLIAM R. WICKES, ERNST R. BRESLICH, HARRIS F. MCNEISH, ERNEST A. WREIDT. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1907. Pp. 181. \$1.00.

Geometric Exercises for Algebraic Solution. Second-Year Mathematics for

Secondary Schools. By GEORGE WILLIAM MYERS, and WILLIAM R. WICKS, ERNEST A. WREIDT, ERNST R. BRESLICH. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1907. Pp. 71. \$0.75.

HISTORY AND CIVICS

- A Short History of Rome.* By FRANK FROST ABBOTT. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1907. Pp. 304. With maps and illustrations. \$1.00.
- A Handbook for the Study of Roman History.* (To accompany Abbott's *Short History of Rome*.) By FRANK FROST ABBOTT. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1906. Pp. 48. \$0.25.
- An Introduction to the History of Modern Europe.* By ARCHIBALD WEIR. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1907. Pp. 340. \$2.00.
- Economics for High Schools and Academies.* By FRANK W. BLACKMAR. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. Pp. 434. \$1.25.

BIOGRAPHY

- When Men Grew Tall: The Story of Andrew Jackson.* By ALFRED HENRY LEWIS. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1907. Pp. 340. Illustrated. \$1.50.

NOTES AND NEWS

In March, 1906, Mr. James A. Foshay, who for ten years had been superintendent of schools in Los Angeles, and to whom is due the credit of having built up a remarkable school system under all the difficulties of a rapidly growing and shifting population, resigned his position. Dr. E. C. Moore, assistant professor of education in the University of California, was elected in his place.

With the advent of a new superintendent, some changes and innovations were introduced, but so gradually as to produce no confusion or friction in the department. In fact, in most cases they appeared simply as an outgrowth and development of existing conditions.

Perhaps the most radical change made was in the method of appointing teachers and in the qualifications required. In order to be eligible to election under the present rule, the applicant must give evidence of education equivalent to graduation from a high school and from an accredited normal school. The method of examination introduced is that of the competitive test, and consists of an oral and a written part. The object of its introduction was to do away with the possibility of political influence affecting appointments, and has, after a year's trial, proved very successful. The oral examination was introduced in order to lend flexibility to the method, giving the examining board an opportunity to judge of the important factor of the applicant's personal qualifications. The written examination is itself a very practical one, consisting of twelve questions on the theory and practice of teaching.

The plan of appointment, together with the inducement of a 20-per-cent.

raise of salary, has given Los Angeles an opportunity to secure a very desirable class of teachers.

The school library had long been a part of the public library, but this method of furnishing books became complicated and ineffective as the city grew in population. Therefore the board of education, last November, established its own library, at one of the ward schools, and now employs its own librarian.

A rule regarding teachers obtaining leave of absence has recently been adopted, providing that only for purposes of travel or study, or on account of illness, may a teacher obtain such leave.

High-school fraternities were abolished in January, the board accepting as a complete expression of its views the resolution reported by the Committee on Secret Fraternities of the National Educational Association, which condemned secret societies as "subversive of the principles of democracy which should prevail in the public schools."

The problem of taking care of the great annual increase of the school population is ever before the city, and on August 8, 1907, a special school tax levy of \$250,000 was voted. Even this amount it is feared will prove inadequate to supply the necessary school facilities, since the schools opened on September 16 with an enrolment of 33,571, being an increase of more than 3,000 over last year.

Since 1904, the school department has been under the control of a non-partisan school board, and the city is now well established in non-partisanship in school affairs, with all that such a condition augurs for clean and efficient service.

There had long been a demand for an evening high school, to supplement the work of the evening grammar schools. On the evening of January 2, 1907, an evening high school was opened, at the Polytechnic High School building, and at once proved itself very popular and successful, the enrolment at the close of the year being 1,436. Its course of study followed the model of the German Continuation Schools, the main purpose being to provide instruction for young men and women who are obliged to go to work as soon as they finish the work of the grammar school. It offered commercial courses, languages, shopwork, applied physics and chemistry, and gymnasium work.

Last summer, late in the session of the Wisconsin legislature, a bill was passed establishing a correspondence school as a department of the State University at Madison. Provision is thus made for the large group of unclassified adults of all ages and all degrees of advancement by instruction which may be pursued at home through the mails. This work is being made largely practical, and to relate effectively in one way or another to the problems of life confronted by such an adult class of students. The artisan or the clerk may receive elementary and technical training; the professional man may utilize the new department for keeping abreast of the additions

research is constantly making in every field of knowledge; and the teacher may earn a college degree.

Correspondence students who are residents of Wisconsin have, besides, exceptional co-operating assistance from the state library system.

This establishes a new precedent for state universities in extending educational services to every productive interest in the state similar to those so long and so effectively rendered by the agricultural colleges alone. This is one aspect of President Van Hise's interesting policy of "making the University the instrument of the state."

The 2,100 young women of the Washington Irving High School, New York, are beginning to imitate some of the colleges in the matter of school solidarity in social matters. Receptions for new students are given to make the strangers feel at home. The plans for a new building embody the home-like ideas of reception hall and hearth. Most of the girls of this school come from hard-working down-town families, and the high school seems designed to give them social life and atmosphere of the kind which more favored girls go away to college to obtain.

Indian Education contains an interesting account of Japanese secondary schools. Especially striking are the numerous regulations governing the construction of the school building. The size of classroom is definitely limited, on account of the effect of a large room on the voice and sight of its occupants, and other rules govern the height of ceilings, the color of the walls, and the elevation of the floor. When school buildings stand parallel to each other, the distance between them must at least equal their height.

In the District of Columbia, all school officers and teachers, men and women, white and colored, are paid the same salaries, *for the same kind of work*.

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Washington has two public normal schools, seven high schools, one hundred and twenty-five grammar schools, ninety kindergartens, forty-two manual-training and domestic-art and science centers, four schools for defectives, nine for incorrigibles and truants, and two reform "industrial home" schools.

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PUBLISHED MONTHLY EXCEPT IN JULY AND AUGUST

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CONTENTS FOR JANUARY, 1907

The Study of Experimental Pedagogy in Germany - - -	Professor Hermann Schwarz	1
The Nineteenth Educational Conference of the Academies and High Schools in Relations with the University of Chicago - - -		11
Social Education through the School - - -	William Bishop Owen	11
Should High-School Botany and Zoölogy Be Taught with Reference to College Entrance Requirements? - - -	Otis W. Caldwell	27
Report of the Committee Appointed by the English Conference to Inquire into the Teaching of English in the High Schools of the Middle West - - -	George W. Tanner	32
German - - -		46
Why Should the Teacher of German have a Knowledge of Phonetics? - - -	A. C. von Noë	46
Value of Phonetics from the Standpoint of the Student - - -	Edith Clawson	48
Phonetics in the Classroom - - -	Paul O. Kern	54
Variations in the Pronunciation of French - - -	J. L. Borgerhoff	61
Greek and Latin - - -		74
Equal Recognition for Greek without Discrimination - - -	Samuel Carlisle Johnston	74
Ancient History and the Classics - - -	Arthur F. Barnard	78
On the Teaching of Secondary Mathematics - - -	John J. Schobinger	83
Editorial Notes - - -		95
European Editors and Correspondents - - -		95
Books Received - - -		97

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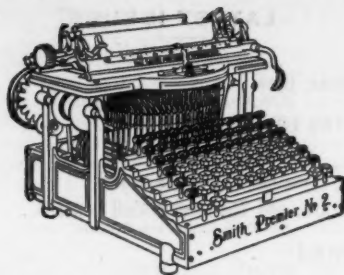
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The Education Bill of 1906 for England and Wales as It Passed the House of Commons. [Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 1, 1906.] By ANNA TOLMAN SMITH. Washington: Government Printing Office. Pp. 48.

Die Kultur der Gegenwart, ihre Entwicklung und ihre Ziele. Teil I, Abteilung I: "Die allgemeinen Grundlagen der Kultur der Gegenwart." Von W. LEXIS, FR. PAULSEN, G. SCHÖPPA, A. MATTHIAS, H. GAUDIG, G. KERSCHENSTEINER, W. v. DYCK, L. PALLAT, K. KRAEFELIN, J. LESSING, O. N. WITT, G. GÖHLER, P. SCHLENTHER, K. BÜCHLER, R. PIETSCHMANN, F. MILKAU, H. DIELS. Berlin und Leipzig: B. G. Teubner, 1906. Pp. xv+671. M. 18.

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HISTORY AND CIVICS

An Advanced History of Great Britain. [Longmans' "Historical Series for Schools," Book III.] By T. F. TOUT. With 63 Maps and Plans. London and New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1906. Pp. xlii+755. 5s.

The Boys' Life of Abraham Lincoln. By HELEN NICOLAY. New York: The Century Co., 1906. Pp. 307. Illustrated. \$1.50.

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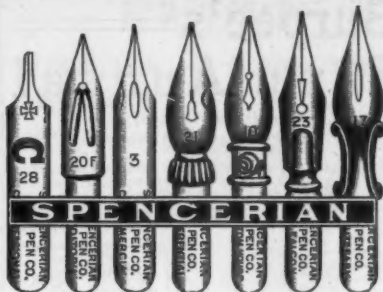
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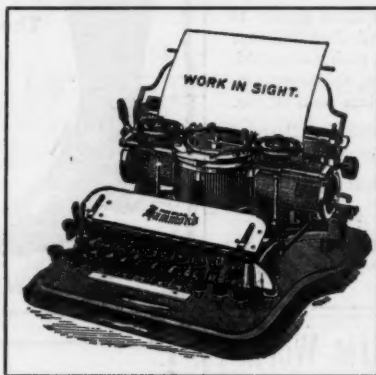
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